

SOCIAL EDUCATION

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Editor's Page

BUILDING BRIDGES

RECENTLY we accompanied a friend, a social studies teacher in a demonstration school, on a visit to a large industrial establishment. The purpose of the visit was to make arrangements for taking a group of junior-high school American history students on a tour of the plant. Our friend was especially interested in having the students gain a better understanding of the nature of corporate business.

We were most cordially received by the Director of Public Relations, who made every effort to be helpful. Unfortunately, he had only the foggiest idea of what to show the young social studies students. He was prepared to give them a tour similar to those taken by science classes, showing them the machinery and the technical processes by means of which raw materials were converted into finished products. He was completely unprepared to give them a simple illustration of modern industrial organization and personnel policies.

We have no fault to find with the Director of Public Relations. But we are convinced that social studies teachers, public relations men, and organized labor are missing an inviting opportunity to build in youth a clearer understanding of the industrial world, and this at a time in history when such an understanding is vitally needed by American youth.

Industrial establishments are today so widely dispersed over the country that a visit to one or more of them is entirely practical for the great majority of junior- and senior-high school pupils. Most of these plants are spending varying sums of money (in the larger industries the sums run into the millions) to break down the idea that private business is predatory and to build a better understanding in the public of the role of Big Business in American life. Additional sums are spent for similar purposes by the National Association of Manufacturers, the United States Chamber of Commerce, and industrial and trade associations, not to mention the service clubs such as Rotary and Kiwanis. These efforts are paralleled by organized labor, which seeks for equally proper reasons to develop in the general public an adequate understanding of its

role in our economic life.

Thus millions of dollars and the talents of thousands of able men and women are annually thrown into an educational campaign to bridge the gap between the public and the economic machinery of the nation. These efforts produce posters, pamphlets, films, and filmstrips by the thousands. Unhappily, they sometimes produce misguided attacks upon textbooks and social studies teachers. We choose the term "misguided" with care, for an attack upon a textbook or a teacher, whether justified or not, is a negative approach to the task of building understanding, and serves in the end only to confuse all concerned, including parents and students.

ISN'T it time that we made a cooperative attack upon the problem of developing in our school-age youth a better understanding of the place of industry and labor in American life? It is our guess that many industrial establishments would welcome the cooperation of local social studies teachers in planning a study tour of the plant. A committee composed of social studies teachers and representatives of labor and management in the local industry could develop in a reasonably short time and with a modest expenditure of money a two- or three-hour program that could be really meaningful. There could be a guided survey of the plant, supplemented by films, film-strips, and discussion periods with opportunity for pupils to raise questions in open meeting with representatives of both labor and management. Without much effort the visual aids and the discussion periods could be adapted for both junior-high school and senior-high school students. Once planned, the basic program could be used over and over again with different groups.

Maybe we aren't aware of what is going on. Maybe such cooperatively-planned programs are already operating in numerous communities throughout the United States. If they aren't, perhaps it is time local social studies teachers took the initiative and paid a visit to the nearest industrial concern. Here is an opportunity to vitalize the social studies, to build understanding and appreciation of America's economic life, and to set an example for community cooperation.

The Great Debate Over the Source Method

Robert E. Keohane

IF ONE could really tear out of the "seamless web" of our professional history that decade which was most truly seminal for the development of secondary-school history in the United States, I would choose the years from 1883 through 1892. In 1883 the first real methods book for our field appeared; the editor, G. Stanley Hall, chose history for the first volume of his "Pedagogical Library" on the not very flattering ground that "no subject so widely taught is, on the whole, taught so poorly."¹ In the same year the first of the Old South Leaflets were published to illuminate from primary sources the historical lectures which John Fiske, A. B. Hart, and others gave to Boston young people and their elders.² In 1884 the American Historical Association was founded. In 1885 H. B. Adams' investigation into the teaching of history in American colleges and universities was begun.³ In the same year two of the better textbooks of the nineteenth century were published.⁴ At the end of the decade A. B. Hart and Edward Channing began the American History Leaflets, and the Madison Conference of the Committee of Ten met and formulated their recommendations for the improved teaching of history and related subjects in grades 5 through 12.⁵ Not least important among the educational developments of this period was the growing interest in the source method for the teaching of history.

In this carefully documented article the author reviews the arguments advanced in the 1890's for and against the use of the source method in the study of history. This paper, originally presented in somewhat longer form at the 1948 Convention of the American Historical Association in Washington, is an important chapter in the history of the social studies. It also is of value for those teachers who believe that their primary responsibility is to develop in their students the art of critical thinking.

Mr. Keohane is an assistant professor of the social sciences in The College, The University of Chicago.

MARY SHELDON BARNES

THE advocates of the source method sought to make one of the controlling aims of historical instruction in the high-school and junior-college years the development of students' ability to think critically. This high aim was to be realized by having the students apply the canons of historical criticism (insofar as their intellectual maturity permitted) to selections from primary sources. Emphasis was upon the educational process, with consequent changes in behavior, rather than upon authoritatively-determined bodies of facts and interpretations to be learned.

By 1892 Mary Sheldon Barnes, with some help from her husband, Professor Earl Barnes, had explained clearly the way in which the source method should be used in history teaching from grade 8 through the high school.⁶ She had also prepared the necessary teaching materials, in the form of what we may term "source textbooks," for Greek and Roman history, general history (now called "world" history), and United States history.⁷

¹ G. Stanley Hall (ed.), *Methods of Teaching and Studying History* (Boston: Ginn, Heath, 1883), p. vii; 2nd ed. (1885), p. ix.

² Edwin D. Mead, "The Old South Historical Work," *Education*, VII (December, 1886), 249-63, esp. 253-55.

³ Herbert B. Adams, *The Study of History in American Colleges and Universities*. U.S. Bureau of Education, Circular of Information No. 2, 1887 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1887).

⁴ Mary Sheldon Barnes, *Studies in General History*; Alexander Johnston, *History of the United States for Schools*.

⁵ Robert E. Keohane, "The Madison Conference and the Committee of Seven: A Reconsideration," *The Social Studies*, XL (March 1949), 103-12, esp. 107-08.

⁶ Robert E. Keohane, "Mary Sheldon Barnes and The Origin of the Source Method of Teaching History in the American Secondary School," *American Heritage*, II (October and December 1948), 68-72, 109-12.

⁷ The *Studies in General History* and the *Teacher's Manual* to accompany it appeared under the name of Mary D. Sheldon in 1885 and 1886 respectively. In 1891 she and her husband brought out the *Studies in American History*, and in 1892 the accompanying manual appeared as the work of Mary Sheldon Barnes. All four volumes were published by Heath.

The source method, as explained in the *Teacher's Manuals* which accompanied the textbooks, may be summarized in six points: First, secondary and primary materials were combined in one volume in almost equal parts. Second, for basic homework the pupil was required to study this "source-textbook" in order to find answers to the study questions. Third, the "recitation" consisted of a critical discussion of the pupils' answers to the study questions and an evaluation of the pupils' reasons for their answers. In this period the pupils were to be "as free and talkative" as possible. Fourth, during the discussion the conclusions were to be summarized by both the teacher and the pupils, and the summaries were to be entered in the pupils' notebooks. Fifth, additional reading in secondary works was to follow the reading of primary sources and classroom discussion of a topic. Sixth, the major aim of such study was to stimulate the pupil to study, think about, and discuss historical questions critically in order to develop his abilities of observation, judgment, and generalization, and to develop his historical imagination.

For a decade after 1886, it was Mary Sheldon Barnes' version of the source method about which educational controversy centered. One of the most fundamental and sweeping criticisms came from Professor R. H. Dabney of the University of Virginia who, after granting that Earl and Mary Sheldon Barnes did rather well what they set out to do in the *Studies in American History*, attacked them for doing it. "There is a widespread notion at present," Dabney wrote, "that the one end and aim of education is to teach pupils of any age, condition, and sex to think for themselves and to have opinions of their own on any imaginable subject." Then, after denouncing the "shallow imitation" of the German seminar method in American colleges, and conceding that "even children should be allowed to use their reasoning faculties," Dabney added, "But I deny that the cultivation of their faculties should be the chief aim of the teaching of young pupils." Admitting that through the use of sources the power of judgment could be stimulated, he dismissed the result as a "hothouse plant." Professor Dabney then suggested that, although it was proper to use sources to stimulate interest in history, "the main thing is for them (the boys) to *learn* (italics in original) what is in the book, and to gain from it a keen desire to learn more."⁸

⁸ *Educational Review*, VI (November 1893), 394-97.

THE MADISON CONFERENCE

SOON after Professor Dabney's attack the Madison Conference of the Committee of Ten formulated their able report in which one of Dabney's basic assumptions was challenged.⁹ The Conference held that, while "one object of historical study is the acquirement of useful facts . . . , the chief object is the training of the judgment, in selecting the grounds of an opinion, in accumulating materials for an opinion, in putting things together, in generalizing upon facts, in estimating character, in applying the lessons of history to current events, and in accustoming children to state their conclusions in their own words."¹⁰ In spite of their belief that most history textbooks were rather poor, the Madison Conference recommended that such works should be used from Grade 7, "but only as a basis of fact and arrangement, to be supplemented by other methods." At the same time they recommended the simultaneous use of two to four textbooks to promote in pupils the habit of comparing authorities, and to impress them with the fact that no single textbook is complete.¹¹

Without elevating the source method to the position which Mary Sheldon Barnes would have given it, the Madison Conference made proposals which, if carried out, would have given a large place in secondary-school history to primary sources. They recommended that "in all practicable ways, an effort should be made to teach the pupils in the later years to discriminate between authorities, and especially between original sources and secondary works." They added, "It is not expected that pupils in grammar or high schools are to be historical writers, or that they are to suppose that they are carrying out historical investigation to its widest extent; but we confidently and urgently recommend the use of this historical method because of its peculiar educational value." The Conference also recommended that the last high-school year be devoted to the study of civil government and to a "special period (of history) studied in an intensive manner." In favor of this unusual proposal the Conference argued that such study would "teach careful, painstaking examination and comparison of sources, . . . and give the pupil a practical power to collect and use historical material,

⁹ *Report . . . on Secondary School Studies . . .* U.S. Bureau of Education, Whole Number 205 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1893), 162-203.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 170.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 164, 188-89.

which will serve him and the community throughout all his after life." In short, without proposing the source method as the basic procedure for secondary-school history, the Madison Conference of the Committee of Ten urged the critical use of primary sources in a comprehensive history curriculum in a program of general education.¹²

FRED MORROW FLING AND THE NEBRASKA EXPERIMENT

DESPITE some additional use of the source method by Mary Sheldon Barnes on the elementary and college levels, and some debate over the merits of "intensive study" of a historical period or topic in high school, the most vital and important development of the method in the middle 1890's occurred in Nebraska under the leadership of Professor Fred Morrow Fling. With the cooperation of his colleague in American History, Professor Howard W. Caldwell, Professor Fling, who had earlier taught from Mrs. Barnes' *Studies in General History* on the high-school level, applied the source method to his college classes from the freshman year up. If the not-greatly disguised picture of Professor Fling as the professor of European history in the late Willa Cather's *One of Ours* may be taken at face value, this application was eminently successful.¹³ In my opinion it is one of the very few really excellent solutions to the problem of the "introductory college course" in European history which was worked out in this country before the present decade.

But it was on the high-school level that Professor Fling and his associates made their greatest contribution to the development of the source method. During 1896-97 high-school history teachers in all parts of Nebraska undertook to teach by this method under the guidance of Professors Fling and Caldwell, who sponsored European and United States history respectively. As far as possible the Sheldon-Barnes books were followed, but each month articles explaining how to use them appeared in the *North Western Journal of Education*.¹⁴ Fling and Caldwell adopted

all of Mary Sheldon Barnes' basic procedures (except that they put much more emphasis upon written work—notes, outlines, and summaries) and they even added two steps, namely: (1) the pupil made an outline of the topic after its study and discussion had been completed; and (2) he then wrote a narrative based upon the outline. These narratives were then "read and criticized" in the classroom. (Teachers who have used the "Morrison plan" of teaching will note some significant resemblances.) Finally Fling recommended that a narrative textbook "should be at hand with which to compare the conclusions which have been reached in class discussions and which we now find embodied in the little narratives prepared by the class."¹⁵

By July 1897, Professors Fling and Caldwell were ready to seek educational converts. At the N.E.A. meeting at Milwaukee Professor Caldwell reported on their year's work and stated the basic issue when he said, "The desirability of doing source work to some extent I deem to be beyond the point of discussion. How much shall be done and how it shall be done are as yet open and debatable questions." For the lower secondary-school years he recommended the method which they had used the previous year. For the upper years Professor Caldwell suggested that it would be better merely to give the pupils a document and ask them what it contained. At this meeting there was one strong and significant dissent—that of Professor H. Morse Stephens of Cornell, who remarked that he thought the source method impossible in secondary schools because adequate libraries and properly trained teachers were lacking.¹⁶

THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION AND THE GREAT DEBATE

BUT more important than the N.E.A. for the fate of the source method was that high court of history, the American Historical Association. At the New York meeting in December 1896, the Association had devoted an evening session to problems of teaching history on the college level. It was the prologue to the great debate. Professor H. B. Adams thought that it was good "enough for the ordinary collegian if he is introduced to a few good books of history and politics." It is too much of a burden to load

¹² *Ibid.*, pp. 177, 195.

¹³ Willa Cather, *One of Ours* (New York: Knopf, 1922), pp. 37, 61. Those who wish a more objective summary of his method will find it in Charles H. Haskins, "The Historical Curriculum in Colleges," *Minutes: Second Annual Convention of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland*. . . . 1904 (New York: Knickerbocker Press, n.d.), pp. 19-20.

¹⁴ Most of this material was published in F. M. Fling and H. W. Caldwell *Studies in European and American History* (Lincoln: J. H. Miller, 1897).

¹⁵ Fling and Caldwell, *op. cit.*, Pp. 24, 27-28, 98, 240.

¹⁶ Howard W. Caldwell, "Source Method of Studying History in High Schools," *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses of the . . . N.E.A.* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1897), Pp. 671-76.

him with documents and references to archives and sources. On the other side Professor J. H. Robinson of Columbia defended the use of primary sources as basic reading materials. He asserted that the three requisites of good historical instruction in college were the following: (1) a well-balanced teacher to lecture and supervise discussions; (2) a brief outline or syllabus; and (3) a list of required readings "mainly from the contemporaneous accounts of the subjects to be dealt with."¹⁷

As far as the source method was concerned, the most important event of the 1896 meeting of the A.H.A. was the establishment of the famous Committee of Seven. Although originally constituted to contribute to the solution of the perennial college-entrance problem, the Committee took a broad view of its commission, and during its first year worked energetically to gather information about the teaching of history in American and in foreign secondary schools, and to get some informal guide to the thinking of history teachers in colleges and high schools. In the meeting of history teachers at Vassar College in November, 1897, one of the four questions discussed was this, "Can history be taught from the sources in secondary schools?"¹⁸

The climax of the debate on the source method was reached, however, at the Cleveland meeting of the American Historical Association in 1897. At the first session a three-man panel discussed the extent to which "sources" may be profitably used in teaching history below the graduate school. Professor J. A. Woodburn classified the more usual functions of primary sources in such teaching as follows: (1) vitalizing and making history more real; (2) intensifying the impression of events and retention of facts; (3) cultivating a taste for research; and (4) promoting the exercise of independent judgment. In an article published a year later, Professor Woodburn made the point that "the process which gives outright answers to a problem without requiring investigation and solution, like a key in arithmetic, is not an educational process. The process of reasoning and investigation by which he does so is usually more valuable than the result obtained." Professor A. B. Hart's remarks were dismissed in the summary account as "technical."

¹⁷ *Annual Report of the American Historical Association, 1896* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1897), pp. 1, 15-16, 253, 270-71.

¹⁸ *Proceedings of the Eleventh Annual Convention of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, 1897* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1898), pp. 152-54.

Professor E. P. Cheyney upheld the usual view that primary sources were to be used with undergraduates, "not as the basic reading material, not to train students in historical investigation," but, wherever practicable, to "illustrate, or supplement, or to give reality to the work, and wherever they will teach a lesson of historical judgment without at the same time destroying the unity and continuity of the student's course." At this point Professor Fling explained what the Nebraska history teachers were doing with primary sources, and "advocated their being made the staple of historical instruction. But the general view seemed to be that their proper use was rather as a vivifying adjunct to textbooks, lectures, and the reading of authoritative historians."¹⁹ So ended the preliminary skirmish in the decisive battle over the source method.

On the second day (December 29) Professor A. C. McLaughlin, Chairman of the Committee of Seven, reported. Speaking for the Committee, he recommended the use of a basic textbook with collateral reading as a part of every course. He held that primary sources were principally useful in giving concreteness and reality to the work, and could be used by the teacher, and often by the pupil, for purposes of illustration.²⁰

The debate which followed was focused on the basic issue—whether the source method as defined by Mary Sheldon Barnes and Professor Fred Morrow Fling should be generally used in secondary-school history. As the official account of the meeting put it, Professor Fling "expressed his regret that the Committee's recommendations on the use of sources were not more decided and more radical. He contended that if the pupils were not brought into immediate contact with the sources, such materials would never be used at all, even for purposes of illustration. He declared that all the tendencies in America and Europe were in the direction of the source method." In reply Professor Hart upheld the view that primary sources were chiefly useful in the secondary school to vitalize instruction. Professor Lucy M. Salmon of Vassar and Professor C. H. Haskins of Wisconsin, both of whom had spent the preceding summer in Europe where they had investigated history teaching in German and French secondary schools respectively denied the existence of such a trend there.²¹

With this clash the last chance that the source

¹⁹ *American Historical Review*, III (April 1898), 406-07, and *Annual Report of the A.H.A. . . .*, 1897, I, 43-49.

²⁰ *American Historical Review*, loc. cit.

²¹ *Ibid.*, p. 413.

method would be one of the more common approaches to the study of history in American secondary schools was lost for at least half a century. But the finality of the decision was not apparent to the protagonists, so the debate went on. The opposing viewpoints were best expressed in the published version of the Committee's Report, and in Professor Fling's review of that Report.

FRED MORROW FLING VERSUS THE COMMITTEE OF SEVEN

ON THE source method and the proper functions of primary sources in secondary-school history the official stand of the Committee was clear, positive, and definite.

We believe in the proper use of sources for proper pupils, with proper guarantees that there shall also be secured a clear outline view of the whole subject studied; but we find ourselves unable to approve a method of teaching, sometimes called the "source method," in which pupils have in their hands little more than a series of extracts, for the most part brief, and not very closely related. The difficulty with this system is, that while it suggests the basis of the original record upon which all history rests, on the other hand it expects valuable generalizations from insufficient basis. . . . Indeed the attempts to teach history wholly from the sources ignore the fact that the actual knowledge of the facts of history in the minds of the most highly trained teachers of history, comes largely from secondary books. . . . The use of sources which we advocate is, therefore, a limited contact with a limited body of materials, an examination of which may show the child the nature of the historical process, and at the same time may make the people and events of bygone times more real to him. We believe that some acquaintance with sources vitalizes the subject, and thus makes it easier for the teacher and more stimulating for the pupil.²³

The Committee held that the first essential for "any practical use of the sources by pupils" is that the work "be done in connection with a good textbook." They thought that occasionally such documents as the Declaration of Independence or the Ordinance of 1787 should be used, but the most interesting sources for pupils come from books of travel, letters, and diaries. As long as the pupil was not under the illusion that he had become a historian, he might share the historian's intellectual joys by using primary sources in connection with topical written work. While the Committee did not repeat the Madison Conference's recommendation of "intensive study" for a year or a half-year, they did think that the intensive study of a period or of a topic

might well be arranged in English or American history when adequate libraries, time, and well-trained teachers were available. In such study the pupil would "have exceptional opportunities to read the best secondary authorities, and even to examine primary material."²³

Despite the generally favorable reception of the Report of the Committee of Seven, reviewers expressed a variety of opinions on the Committee's treatment of the source method. Professor Nicholas Murray Butler (soon to be President Butler) rejoiced that the "grimly humorous" idea "that boys and girls of tender age can learn history by 'investigating sources'" had been checked.²⁴ Professor George E. Howard of Stanford, on the other hand, thought that the Committee had minimized the advantages to be gained from the use of sources. Professor Howard then noted that the pupil, like the trained historian, has to have perspective, and goes to the authorities for it. But he added, "Investigation is not something *outside* of history, but it is included in history, and it is essential to the grasping of the real meaning of history."²⁵ Thus Professor Howard agreed with Mary Sheldon Barnes and Professor Fling that high-school history was not adequately taught unless pupils were initiated to some extent into the "mysteries"—were made somewhat aware of the bases for, and the ways in which written narrative history was arrived at, and to that extent, were made critical of any authoritarian approach.

But the most forceful reply to the Committee of Seven came from the pen of Professor Fling, who, after admitting that it is easier to criticize than to make such a report, took the Committee to task for giving too much attention to course content and too little to methods of teaching. The part on methods was the least satisfactory of all, he said; it had nothing new, and its recommendations were extremely conservative. "The Committee placed too many restrictions upon the use of sources to suit me. 'The proper use of sources for proper pupils, with proper guarantees' in which the Committee believes, might suggest that a source is a dangerous thing for the average pupil to come into contact with."²⁶

Then Professor Fling took up, in four points,

²³ *Ibid.*, pp. 102, 104-07, 111-12.

²⁴ *American Historical Review*, V (January, 1900), 322-23.

²⁵ "The Study of History in Schools," *Educational Review*, XIX (March, 1900), 266.

²⁶ "The Study of History in Schools," *North-Western Monthly*, X (September, 1899), 1-4 (erroneously paged 459-62).

²³ *The Study of History in Schools: Report to the American Historical Association by the Committee of Seven* (N.Y.: Macmillan, 1899), Pp. 100-02, 104.

the main arguments of the Committee of Seven on the use of sources, arguments both stated and implied (as he saw them), and answered them. First he denied that anyone was attempting "to teach history *wholly* from the sources." He added that "the advocates of the 'source method' are not ignorant of the 'fact that the actual knowledge of history comes largely'—more largely probably than is necessary—'from secondary books.' " The essential point was a matter of proportion—a practical question of the proportion of historical facts to sources; "the advocates of the source method believe in basing the work, *as far as practical, on the sources*" (italics in original).²⁷

In his second main point Professor Fling got into one of the fundamental issues which was slurred over by most participants in this debate. Just as the source extracts must be selected, he points out, "so must the illustrations in a narrative text, and the first process is just as legitimate as the second." Thus the argument of the Committee counts equally against the narrative text. "The teacher that (*sic*) allows a pupil to generalize upon the information found in two or three narratives is expecting 'valuable generalizations from insufficient bases.' The Committee understands fully that there is such a thing as a type." Fling then argued that when the investigator has found a typical *cahier*, for example, it is legitimate to place this source before his students and to ask questions which will lead to generalization. "All history cannot be studied this way, but much of it can." Then he summed up the "chief difference between the advocates of the source method and its opponents" as follows:

The advocates believe in teaching the pupils early and often that every narrative rests, or should rest, upon sources, and to do this work the teacher should start *as often as possible* (italics in original) with the sources; the opponents would begin with a textbook, follow it with readings from larger narratives and, last of all, take a "peep" at the sources by way of "illustration."²⁸

The third point was quickly made. The Committee seemed to think, according to Professor Fling, that the advocates of the source method were not concerned that their students should understand the historical significance of facts. The answer was that the aim of the source method was to train students "in the knowledge of the *entire* (italics in original) historical process, synthetic as well as analytic." In Fling's opinion the pupils who were trained in analysis

knew as much about the synthetic work as those whose analytic training had been neglected.²⁹

The most basic issue of all—at least in the minds of most of the protagonists—was the place of the textbook and the concomitant issue of pupil-generalizing against pupil-learning of ready-made conclusions, guaranteed as pure by historical authorities. Professor Fling held that the Committee was in error in believing that primary source material could not be used without the aid of a "good textbook," in which the sequence and relation of events can be made clear. A book made up of source extracts and facts is not without organization, and it can be used without a good narrative. The connections are lacking and the generalizations are not there and with good reason. It is the business of the teacher to teach the pupil how to generalize on this material and how to bind it together. It can be done because it has been done, again and again." The inductive method "can be applied more successfully to a book made up of sources and facts that leave some work to be done, than to a narrative text where all the work has been done." Professor Fling then ended his review with a passage containing the following *credo*:

I believe that this (the achievement of increased rigor in history-teaching) can be done the most successfully by the inductive method, and by training the pupils in the knowledge of the historical process; I believe in the use of narrative texts to supplement this work, and not of the sources to supplement the texts.³⁰

THE LAST WORDS

BUT let us give a woman, the honored president of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland forty-five years ago, the next to the last word. Professor Lucy M. Salmon summed up the history of the conflict as follows:

In the first reaction from the slavish use of the textbook that characterized the early period of history-teaching, the textbook was thrown aside and immature pupils were put at tasks that might well have staggered experienced historians. But the discussion of twenty years over the question of whether the textbook method or the source method should be used in the secondary schools has resulted in inestimable benefit. The textbook has been restored, but not to its old place. It no longer serves to stimulate the flagging memory of the teacher, who follows the history lesson with his finger on the line of the next; but it serves as the skeleton which the teacher is to clothe with flesh and blood. Sources have not taken the place of the textbook, but they are used to illustrate, not to reconstruct history. One of the greatest gains of the discussions of the past twenty years has been the clarification of our

²⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 4 (462).

²⁸ *Loc. cit.*

²⁹ *Loc. cit.*

³⁰ *Loc. cit.*

ideas in regard to the relation to each other of sources and textbooks.³¹

Professor Salmon expressed here the conclusion to which most history teachers then and for years after subscribed—that the textbook constituted the heart of the reading assignment, but that sources could be used to restore some of the life and color which were usually lacking in textbooks. Most editors and publishers of source books followed the prevailing pattern; some even designed books of “source readings” to accompany particular textbooks. Professor Hart was rather typical in his effort to make clear that, in bringing out a source book, he was not advocating the idea “that young and inexperienced boys and girls can find in this book material broad enough to serve as the sole basis of generalizations; or that they can construct a complete narrative out of any amount of material: the source book is meant to supplement, not to supplant the textbook.” He added that the proper use of sources “in schools, and even in most college classes” is “to act as adjuncts to historical narrative, by illustrating it and making it vivid.”³²

On the other hand, Professors Fling and Caldwell “held firm in the faith,” and produced what are, in my opinion, the best school materials for the source method in high-school history in nineteenth century America.³³ But their works were published by a small firm which soon went out of business, they were more difficult to use (if the teacher followed instructions), and they served ends disapproved by the highest authorities. When Professor Fling brought out his *Source Book of Greek History* with Heath in 1907, he recognized that its contents would “probably be

used (by most teachers) as ‘illustrative material’ and to introduce the pupil to Greek literature and art.” At the same time he made it perfectly clear that he still stood on his basic principle.

I do not advocate the substitution of source study for the study of secondary narratives, nor do I believe that all sources should be studied intensively; but I do believe that the critical study of the sources should be made the very foundation-stone of historical instruction. . . . If an important part of education is to learn how results are obtained and not simply to know what the results are, then historical method should have a place in the teaching of history.³⁴

WITH that comment we may well end. Developments in American secondary-school history seem to me to have borne out Professor Fling’s warning before the American Historical Association 51 years ago that, if primary sources were used merely for illustration and as supplementary reading, they would likely cease to be used at all in most classes below the senior-college level. In the past decade, however, several “new” movements in secondary education have given hope that the historical method and the critical use of primary sources might again become of some importance. Unfortunately much of the drive for this emphasis upon “propaganda analysis” or “critical thinking” has lacked the positive side which wise adaptation of some of the historian’s techniques and materials would have given it.³⁵

Some of us have rediscovered a vital introduction to contemporary issues through the use of well-selected original expressions of some of our American and Western heritage of ideas. Let us hope that, if and when a truly general and liberal education for American youth begins to replace a premature and immature specialization, the historians will be ready and willing to play their full role in its formulation and development.

³¹ F. M. Fling, *Source Book of Greek History*, pp. v, vii.

³² Robert E. Keohane, “Historical Method and Primary Sources,” *The Study and Teaching of American History* . . . (Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1947), 324-39.

³³ Minutes: Second Annual Convention . . . , p. 6.

³⁴ A. B. Hart (ed.), *Source-Book of American History* (N.Y.: Macmillan, 1899), p. xvii.

³⁵ F. M. Fling, *Studies in European History: Grecian and Roman Civilization* (1898), and the three works edited by H. W. Caldwell, *Survey of American History*, *Great American Legislators*, and *American Territorial Development*. First published in the *North-Western Monthly*, these works were brought out in book form by J. H. Miller of Lincoln between 1898 and 1900.

The Renaissance of the Reading Program

Orlando W. Stephenson

THE discovery, some two decades ago, that students of the social studies classes of our senior high school had read little of the better historical fiction caused us considerable concern. Visits to other schools provided additional evidence that the reading habits of boys and girls in the middle teens were allowed to lapse and that students did little reading of fiction after that period except under compulsion. The visits revealed, too, that teachers of the social studies were providing practically no correlation between the social studies, particularly that of history, and related fiction which could broaden and enrich the pupils' knowledge of the subject matter. Students were not being sufficiently encouraged to acquire, at least vicariously, the rich and illuminating experiences of the human race. Furthermore, they were not becoming familiar with fine literature or acquiring a taste for good books which would continue into adulthood and provide many pleasant moments. They were missing much in the way of vocabulary growth, and they were not becoming acquainted with those fascinating characters of fiction, who, once known, would live forever in their fancies. Thus an important phase of their cultural development was neglected. Unless pupils read some of the better books of fiction while yet in their teens, the probabilities are strong that they will never read them at all.

WHY STUDENTS DO NOT READ

WHY, at the age of fifteen, or thereabouts, do many pupils who have been avid readers in their earlier years lose interest in that

delightful diversion? Our personal observations and reflections furnished a part of the answer to this question. In an attempt to educate the "whole child," the school program has steadily expanded. Formerly, a pupil's normal load was four academic subjects, and there were almost no extracurricular activities in which he could participate. He had plenty of leisure for "supplementary" and other worth while "outside reading." But with the passing of the years there came a change. Today, although the pupil continues to take only four or five study subjects, he also takes one or more non-academic subjects chosen from a wide range of offerings. These include "shop," homemaking, fine arts, dramatics, speech, typing, choir, band, orchestra, shorthand, drawing, bookkeeping, and "gym." Many pupils take part, too, in athletic sports and games, club work, field trips, and community work of one kind or another. Moreover, the amount of textbook content has nearly doubled during the last three decades.

At present, in the larger urban high schools, the superior student can find time to read only once a single long assignment, and the retarded reader cannot find time to do even that. Many who ride buses to and from school, especially boys and girls who attend rural consolidated schools and who have housework or chores to do after they get home, have on week nights no more than an hour or so in which to prepare assignments. As for reading fiction on school nights, that is practically impossible. Time to read such material has to be found on Saturdays, Sundays, and during the long vacation periods.

Older high school pupils supplied still other reasons why they had not acquired the habit of reading good fiction or had allowed the habit to lapse. One girl complained that the school library did not have nearly enough books of historical fiction to satisfy all of the calls. A boy expressed his contempt for reading *any* books by asserting that doing so was "too much like school." A second youth voiced the view of several of his classmates when he said, "Aw, there's

"Unless pupils read some of the better works of fiction while yet in their teens," the author states, "the probabilities are strong that they will never read them at all." What teachers can do about this problem is discussed by Dr. Stephenson, who is an associate professor in the school of education and head of the social studies department of the University High School at the University of Michigan in Ann Arbor.

lots of other things I'd rather do than read books." As an afterthought he added with a shrug, "I guess I would try to wade through one of them if I would be sure to get extra credit for it. I'd be more than pleased if I were paid for eating pie, but to be compelled to eat it might spoil the taste." A Future Farmer of America stated wistfully that it took him so long to get home and to do his chores that the only time and energy left was for "biscuits, biology, and bed." A coy blond arched her golden brows, tilted her saucy chin, flashed an even row of white teeth and admitted, "I'd rather date." Gladys, a slow lazy lass, said that she would rather see *The Good Earth* than read it. Her chum, on the other hand, declared that she had felt a strong desire to browse through that best seller because she had seen the movie. Finally, a boy whose parents had been born in Bulgaria said somewhat accusingly, "I didn't know such books even existed until we were told about them in class." On the other hand, many pupils stated that they would have acquired the habit of reading, or would have kept it up, if they had been sufficiently motivated to do so.

What these non-reading pupils were missing struck us with special force when we made inquiries as to the number who had read certain books. To illustrate how little was read, a check made on a large, eleventh grade class in American history revealed that by the end of the school year only four students had read *The Crisis*, three *The Covered Wagon*, two *Alice of Old Vincennes*, and one *The Tree of Liberty*. Not a pupil in the class had read any of the following: *Next to Valour*, *Captain Paul*, *The Day Must Dawn*, *Oliver Wiswell*, *Hugh Wynne Free Quaker*, *Richard Carvell*, *Wolves Against the Moon*, *The Bridge of San Louis Rey*, *Death Comes to the Archbishop*, *Western Union*, *Cimmaron*, *John Brown's Body*, *Grapes of Wrath* or *Journey's End*. In the tenth grade class in European history, only three pupils had read *Ben Hur*, three *The Last Days of Pompeii*, two *The Three Musketeers*, and one *Captain Blood*. Not a pupil in the class had read *A Victor of Salamis*, *A Friend of Caesar*, *The Beauty of the Purple*, *Lorna Doone*, *Petticoat King*, *The Clutch of the Corsican*, *The Girl in White Armor*, *The Seats of the Mighty*, *Scaramouche*, or *Westward Ho!* Such reading of fiction as pupils had done was largely in connection with requirements in the English and American literature classes, not in connection with the study of history or the other social studies.

ENCOURAGING PUPILS TO READ

IF PUPILS who had never formed the reading habit were to acquire it, if those who had acquired the habit were to keep it, and if the habit were to be revived in those who had once had it and had permitted it to lapse, some means of stimulating an interest in reading would have to be devised. Such a device should cause pupils to *want* to read; the evils resulting from the use of compulsion must be absent. It was desirable, moreover, that the motivation to read come from the pupils themselves, from enthusiastic comments they made about the books and not by any teacher-tainted opinions.

The stimulating device which proved most successful was a reading report blank, the face of which is shown here:

Reading Report, Social Studies

1. Pupil's name Grade
2. Report number....Date of report.....Date read....
3. Title
4. Author Other works by the same author: (a) (b)
5. Did you read word for word or merely skim?.....
6. Did the book add much, not much, or very little to the knowledge gained in class on the historical background?
7. Did the book interest you much, some, or not at all?
8. How was your interest in this book aroused?.....

On the back of the blank was printed:

9. In the space below express freely your opinion of the book as to how worth while it is, how interesting, and add any other comments you may care to make.

Each of the items was intended to serve a specific purpose. Numbers 1, 2, and 3 were to give us data as to who had read what, and when. "Other works by the same author" was included in the hope that a pupil who had read and enjoyed a novel would be moved to read one or more other books by the same author. The fifth item recognized the fact that if a pupil found the phraseology of a book difficult or the content dull and uninteresting, he would cease reading it entirely or would merely skim the pages, and no amount of coercion would compel him to read it word for word. The sixth item was for the purpose of finding out, in case we ourselves had not read a particular book, whether the historical material in it did or did not supplement the material of the same type covered in class. Items 7, 8, and 9 were intended to give us material for motivating interest in historical fiction. If a

pupil would say, for example, that he had found a book extremely interesting and then went on to tell in glowing terms why he had enjoyed it, his comments could be used to arouse the interest of other members of the class in that book.

The purpose of the several items was explained to the students and suggestions were made as to points which might be touched upon under item nine: The degree of interest the book had aroused; the nature of the historical background; reaction to the principal characters; suspense and the use of dramatic episodes; visual illustrations; rapidity of the action; dialogue, vocabulary, and style. The use made of these suggestions can be brought out by quoting what five of the pupils wrote under this last item:

Referring to *The Crisis*, Catherine said:

I thought this book was extremely interesting, well written and very much worth-while. It was one of the best books I ever read, holding my attention throughout. It gives many vivid facts about the Civil War and so makes them easy to remember. The account of the Vicksburg campaign is especially vivid. The book tells how Missouri was saved for the Union, but it is fair to both the North and the South. The descriptions of Lincoln, Grant, and Sheridan made these characters seem human and real. I also liked Colonel Carver and Judge Whipple. When I finished the book I felt that I knew each of these men personally. If any of the kids wants to read a really interesting book, this is it. Of the historical novels I intend to read again, *The Crisis* is a must.

Of *Northwest Passage* George wrote:

This is the most fascinating book I ever read. It never gave me a dull moment. I am glad I read it right after we had studied the events leading to the American Revolution because then I had a good background for understanding and appreciating the story. It describes the trip to the St. Francis to wipe out the Indians who terrorized the colonists during the French and Indian War. The first part is more exciting than the second, though the second is interesting enough. The action is fast and there are so many dramatic incidents that my emotions went up and down like a pump-handle. I could just see the skirmishes and the painted savages playing catch with white men's heads. I like the main characters very much, Major Rogers especially. Everyone in the class should read this book. It is TOPS!

Judith spoke thus of *Janice Meredith*:

My older brother told me about this book, and I was curious to know what a book with such a title would be like. I have read it four times, so I guess I do not have to say that I liked it. Sometimes the suspense (*sic*) is terrific. The attitude of the different kinds of people (Loyalists, Quakers, etc.) is well brought out. The hero and heroine popped up in the same places in a surprising manner. Though I thought that kind of thing doesn't happen in real life, I did not mind. I think I'll read the book again.

Tony had this to say about *Renown*:

I found this book unusually interesting. It has a different viewpoint from what I expected. It deals with the trails (*sic*), tribulations, and the astonishingly few periods of happiness in the life of Benedict Arnold. The book quite clearly shows his attitude toward the Americans and the British and their attitude toward him. I wondered after I read it whether Arnold might not have turned out differently if he had not married that peanut-minded Peggy Shippen.

Besides its historical value I think this book is notable for two reasons: (1) It is an inspiring exposition of the character of a strong man, and (2) it teaches a valuable lesson in tolerance. The story is smoothly written, the incidents well connected and the action rapid. I would recommend it to anyone who has an open mind and the ability to read without strong prejudices.

This was Harriet's reaction to *The Gorgeous Hussy*:

Although, as the title implies, *Peggy* is a hussy, she is a glamorous as well as gorgeous one, and her story is both interesting and realistic. Here you see how Washington society and politics looked to a beautiful, intelligent woman. Dolly Madison, John Randolph, John C. Calhoun, Henry Clay, Andrew Jackson, Daniel Webster, Martin Van Buren, John Tyler, John Eaton, Edgar Allan Poe and others move through the pages, each entirely human and full of red corpuscles. I had read the book before, but it did not mean much to me until we had studied the period from Madison's administration down to the Civil War. I read it the first time after a glowing report had been made upon it in class.

American history furnished the settings of the stories to which these five reports refer. Similar reports were made, however, of books with backgrounds from the history of other peoples and other places. In our own and several other schools where the reading reports were used, something like 6000 reports were commented upon in class and turned in. In many cases the statements made under item nine were too brief and sketchy to be of much value. On the other hand, more than 4000 of them carried just the kind of comments we had hoped to see.

These comments revealed why pupils liked some stories and disliked others. Commendatory remarks included such words and expressions as dramatic episodes, humorous and exciting situations, rapid action, colorful descriptions, good illustrations, courageous characters, sprightly dialogue, easy reading, supernatural elements, mystery, suspense, excellent plot, interesting adventures, and realistic romance. If a book did not have the qualities these words and expressions suggest, the pupils were quick to say so and from then on that book represented just so much dead literature on our library shelves.

We believed, and the results proved, that a large number of favorable responses to item 7 would further motivate pupils to read. The in-

terest shown by pupils in each of fifteen books, selected from a list at random, is shown by the following table:

Author	Title	Very		
		Much	Much	Little
Atherton, G.,	<i>The Conqueror</i>	189	17	4
Bacheller, I.,	<i>A Man for the Ages</i>	77	94	5
Binet, S. V.,	<i>John Brown's Body</i>	32	6	2
Churchill, W.,	<i>The Crisis</i>	354	201	16
—	<i>The Crossing</i>	98	47	9
Edmonds, W.,	<i>Drums Along the Mohawk</i>	39	11	0
Ford, P. L.,	<i>Janice Meredith</i>	95	18	1
Jackson, H. H.,	<i>Ramona</i>	155	16	23
Johnson, M.,	<i>To Have and To Hold</i>	113	32	14
Mitchell, M.,	<i>Gone With the Wind</i>	36	2	0
Mitchell, S. W.,	<i>Hugh Wynne, Free Quaker</i>	123	21	3
Morrow, H.,	<i>With Malice Toward None</i>	47	19	1
Roberts, K.,	<i>Northwest Passage</i>	44	3	0
Stowe, H. B.,	<i>Uncle Tom's Cabin</i>	103	95	17
Wister, O.,	<i>The Virginian</i>	125	16	8

Reports of more than ordinary interest were placed on the bulletin board for all to read. At the end of the seventh month of school, a list of the 100 most popular novels was posted.

RESULTS ACHIEVED BY THE REPORTS

BEFORE many reports had come in, it became apparent that the praise given by pupils to certain books was having the desired effect. Boys and girls who had never read historical novels began to ask for recommendations of especially interesting stories. Library withdrawals of books of this type increased more than seventy percent. Competition for books developed until it became necessary to post waiting lists for the more popular stories. Reading reports began to pour in from pupils who formerly had found "lots of things more interesting to do than read." Even the coy blond became a convert. On several occasions she and her "date" stayed home from a movie and took turns reading aloud to each other from *The Three Musketeers*. When this news "flash" reached us, we were assured that our stimulating device was indeed a success.

The reports brought results other than those we had hoped for or anticipated. For one thing, old worn-out volumes had to be rebound or replaced. An even larger number of new novels had to be purchased, few of which had ever graced our library shelves. Then, too, the data we compiled and posted on the bulletin board, revealing as it did the popularity and appeal of the several stories, served as a guide to teachers in making up lists of books to recommend to the librarians for possible purchase. Moreover, pupils who had made almost no use of the library except as a place in which to study or to idle away an hour, began to drift in, scan the shelves, and select books to read there or to take home. The librarians were happier and busier than they had ever been.

Parents were also pleased, not only because the young people were reading more good books, but because their sons and daughters were spending more of their leisure time at home. Many parents, particularly mothers, read the books brought from the school library and enjoyed them quite as much as the members of the younger generation. Thus parents and pupils often discovered that they had something of common interest to discuss, the contents of the books frequently furnishing the topics of engaging conversation.

The reading of historical fiction increased the interest of pupils in their study of history. On occasion a boy or girl would review the events of a period just to see how closely the author of a novel had adhered to historical truth and what liberties he had taken with events as they had actually transpired. One girl, who made such a comparison, vowed that if she ever had any children of her own she would start them reading good historical fiction early and keep them at it until they graduated from high school. "I see now," she averred, "why some of my classmates know so much more about history than I do, and why they get better grades. They've been reading sound historical fiction while I've been knitting fancy Argyle socks. From now on I'm going to do both."

The United Nations:

II. Suggested Reforms

Martin B. Dworkis

This is the second and final section of an article, Part I of which appeared in the April issue of *Social Education*.—Editor

PART II¹ EFFECT OF SUGGESTED REFORMS ON THE UNITED NATIONS

THE principal objection to the United Nations—and the driving force behind the world government movement—is the apparent inability of the UN to secure and maintain peace. The criticism is directed not at the aspirations stated in the Charter, but at the framework that allegedly renders the UN an organ for Great Power debate, dependent upon moral suasion in most disputes, and making collective action against war and aggression impossible without Big Five unanimity. There is also the recognition that under the present organization of the UN, the ideological differences and resultant economic and political conflicts between East and West could eventuate in a third world war of titanic destruction. With varying emphases, the proposals of the world government proponents are designed to strengthen or to replace with more powerful organs the present component parts of the UN.

The inherent "weaknesses" of the UN most often attacked include the veto power of the permanent members of the Security Council (France, Soviet Union, Britain, China, and the U.S.); the relegation of the General Assembly to a debating society with recommendatory functions; the ineffectiveness of the International Court of Justice in many legal and all political

disputes; and the lack of an agency, inspection staff, or police force to enforce decisions even when agreement is secured. The weight of public opinion expressed through the Security Council, the General Assembly, or the Economic and Social Council, although adequate in many cases to persuade a recalcitrant nation to accept conciliation and mediation in the settlement of a dispute, is ineffectual against those countries most capable of waging total war.

It is with this background that the advocates of world government propose to rectify the present international system and to provide the protection against war, instability, and injustice desired by the peoples of the world. With the exception of the AAUN, all the organizations believe that world government, or their particular version thereof, must be established immediately, the alternative being chaos and destruction. The AAUN, on the other hand, although indicating a fundamental belief in both the desirability and eventual necessity of world government, is fearful of the destructive effects of a loss in public support for the UN if the "world government-now" proponents are successful in siphoning adherence from the present confederation to one yet untried and difficult to achieve. Equally significant, the AAUN points out, the Soviet has often avowed that it would not adhere to any revised UN. The association concludes that the present system with veto and other limitations is better than a vetoless organization without the U.S.S.R.

AS FAR as the mode of establishing the global superstate, only the FU, in setting up its nuclear federation, would ignore the UN. The CWG, although hesitatingly supporting the idea of securing world government through the UN, believes that a new organization free from both the wiles of the military and the difficulties of Charter amendment must be created by a peo-

¹ The commonly used abbreviations for the world government groups are:

AAUN—American Association for the United Nations

CFWC—Committee to Frame a World Constitution

UWF—United World Federalists

CCUNR—Citizens Committee for United Nations Reform

FU—Federal Union

WMWFG—World Movement for World Federal Government

CWG—Campaign for World Government

ple's convention. The UWF and WMWFG would like to see their programs adopted by the UN, but are preparing to go to "the people" to establish the new institution. For domestic purposes, the UWF has proposed the adoption of an amendment to the U. S. Constitution to authorize negotiations with other nations for the framing of a constitution for a world federal government, open to all nations, with limited powers adequate to assure peace. The CFWC insists on the necessity of a totally new organization but wants it to come through UN action, by a convention called by the General Assembly. The CCUNR advocates the retention of the Charter with the suggested reforms being made by revision according to the methods provided for in Chapter 18 of the Charter. The AAUN, while suggesting numerous changes that could be made under the existing authority of the UN, would prefer the organization "as is" to a possible collapse or abandonment of the UN if such were threatened by an attempt at reform. If possible, the AAUN, UWF, CCUNR, and WMWFG are agreed, the UN should be the basis for any new global federation. A new institution is necessary, however, according to the CWG, CFWC, and FU.

The problem of universality vis-a-vis nuclear federation is also a primary consideration. FU is persistently for a nuclear union of democratically-minded nations growing into a world union as nations demonstrate their fidelity to the rights of individuals and the democratic process. The CWG and the CFWC are completely committed to a system of universal membership, asserting in effect that a partial union would have the appearance of being anti-Soviet and would formalize an already deplorable two-world global arrangement, leading to the very war that all desire to avoid. The other groups would prefer a universal organ, but would accept and work for less provided all efforts have been made to convince the Soviet sphere of the real desire for peace and amity in the new coalition. Even the AAUN, in its proposals for a defensive alliance under Article 51 of the Charter, indicates adherence to a possible reorganization subordinate to the UN but pledged to act without Soviet concurrence if the U.S.S.R. declines the invitation to participate.

PROPOSED GRANTS OF POWER

IT IS in the concepts of powers to be delegated to the new or reformed world authority that the greatest differences of approach are observable. Only the CCUNR believes that the federation should be strictly limited, at present, to

those means necessary to prevent war, aggression, and rearmament. The AAUN is perhaps most reluctant to grant extensive powers, while the CWG is probably the most generous in its recommendations for the international institution. All of the organizations, with the exception of the AAUN and the CCUNR, desire the establishment of a world legislature with power to pass binding law on those matters constitutionally delegated. An independent executive is contemplated in all the programs except the AAUN's. All of the organizations except the CWG propose the creation of an international police force directed by the executive organ to enforce world law against nations and individuals. The CWG, however, would abolish all national and international military forces, depending for control upon a withdrawal of services to any nation that refused compliance with a world legislative directive. The other groups would either limit by progressive quotas or legislation the amount of national armed forces permitted or, as suggested by the WMWFG, eliminate all national armies.

The fear that a global authority might oppress the individual is also recognized by the proponents of world government. Specific protection of individual rights against encroachment by international organs is provided for in all the plans but that of the CCUNR, which is sympathetic to the idea but dislikes the "cluttering" that such protection would impose upon its desire for the simple, effective approach. Less agreement is discernible on whether the world government organization is to protect the individual against denial of basic rights by the nation-state. On this point, the CCUNR, again sympathetic, declines inclusion in its plan; the UWF is conspicuously silent; the CWG somewhat contradictorily would provide such assurance but not to the point of eliminating any possible members; the AAUN would establish protection by the implementation of an international bill of human rights; the remaining groups would incorporate such provisions in the world constitution.

The powers to be delegated would in all cases include complete control over atomic energy development and the limitation of conventional and mass destruction armaments, with inspection staffs to determine compliance with established international regulations. Penalties against individuals who violate the rules against preparation for aggression, the making of war, or illegal armament production would also be imposed.

International commerce, transportation, and communications would be entrusted to the fed-

erative authority in the proposals of the CWG, CFWC, and FU. Independent, taxing powers are recommended by CWG, CFWC, UWF, WMWFG. The control of credits, international banking, and the issuance of currency is contained in the plans of CFWC, FU, WMWFG, CWG. International disputes, political, economic, and legal, would have to be referred to proper global agencies under the suggestions of CFWC, CWG, and FU. Economic and social activities and controls would be placed in the hands of the specialized agencies in order to develop the world's resources and to advance physical and intellectual standards, as provided for by CFWC, CWG, WMWFG, and impliedly, FU and UWF. The distribution of the world's food supply would also be a concern of the super-national group under the designs sponsored by CWG. Administration of federal territory and colonial populations, control over immigration and emigration, ownership of international cartels, establishment of language, calendar, and standard of weights and measures are also variously proposed as items for world control.

A common feature of many of the plans is the provision to be incorporated in the global constitution that powers not delegated to the world government are reserved to the nations or to the people thereof. In addition, FU, UWF, and CWG would provide that each member nation has the right to determine its own economic system. WMWFG, CFWC, AAUN, and the CCUNR, by implication, agree, provided of course, that such a system would not conflict with the nation's obligations under the world charter.

CHANGES IN ORGANIZATION

THE reconstitution of the UN on the basis of the various proposals would greatly expand and strengthen that organization. The Security Council, reconstituted or renamed, would become an executive branch, dependent upon or coordinate with a legislative department. While the CCUNR would increase the Great Power domination in the Security Council (although the veto would not be applicable in questions of aggression), the other groups, with the exception of the AAUN, project an independent executive. FU and CWG specifically propose a multiple executive elected by the world parliament, while the scheme of the CFWC contemplates a single executive, a President, selected on an electoral college basis. FU and CFWC authorize a limited veto for the executive, the final decision on legislative matters being entrusted to the world assembly. The CCUNR plan would permit the

executive to act independently, while CWG, FU, CFWC, and UWF would provide for executive responsibility to the legislative organ. In the latter case, as well as under the AAUN's proposed defensive alliance under the Charter, the executive would be required to carry out the decisions passed by the assembly under its delegated authority.

The World Parliament, according to the CWG, would be elected directly by the people in each country and every state would have, at least initially, an equal number of representatives, proportional representation to be established later. The UWF proposes eventual direct elections also, but each state's representation would be proportioned to population, economic development, educational level, and other factors. FU recommends a bicameral legislature based upon equality or near-equality of states in the upper chamber, and on population in the lower house with the delegates elected on a single-member district basis. CFWC plans a World Council composed of persons selected on a regional system by a popularly-elected convention. WMWFG advocates a revised General Assembly based upon the direct selection by the peoples of the world.

While few of the constitutional outlines provide for a definite term for the representatives, most contemplate a fixed term of office. The CFWC specifies three years; the CWG ten years with the delegates subject to recall during that period. Voting would be an individual matter and decisions in most of the sketched covenants would be made by a majority vote. The assembly would be empowered, of course, to initiate and enact binding legislation in all fields granted jurisdiction under the completed and ratified constitution.

Expanded jurisdiction of the International Court of Justice is a principal feature of the various projects. The UWF would provide for compulsory jurisdiction in only those cases involving violations of laws relating to the maintenance of peace, while the CWG would extend it to all cases likely to cause international frictions. The CCUNR would limit the coercive power of the court to the determination of preparation for aggression, aggressive acts, or interpretation of the federal constitution. The CFWC, CWG, and WMWFG add the power to invalidate laws of individual nations contrary to the provisions of the world constitution, world legislation, or basic principles. The CFWC would also have the supreme tribunal determine the legal validity of elections to the world executive and legislative departments. A provision of every group's



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project is that the jurisdiction of the court, however extensive, shall be applicable to individuals as well as to states and any person violating the world laws shall be punishable by the international judicial body. All of the organizations also agree that the court should be authorized to render decisions on matters not specifically allocated to the world government if the member nations desire to refer such matters for judicial consideration.

In general, the manner in which the international court is to be constituted is not provided for in most of the proposals for world government. The plans usually specify only that a hierarchy of courts, adequate to the expanded activity of the federal government, be established by the general assembly or world parliamentary body. CCUNR provides, however, that the court would be reorganized along the same lines as the reformed Security Council, with two appointees each of the U.S., U.S.S.R., and Britain, one each from China and France, and two selected by the other members. A complete system of regional, appellate, and supreme courts is incorporated in the draft of the CFWC.

It is apparent that the basic approaches to world government are of three types. One

would provide just those executive and/or judicial powers necessary to prevent war and aggression. The AAUN, without changing the Charter, and the CCUNR, through the Charter revision, follow such a general attitude. The second approach, fostered by the UWF, proposes, in addition, a legislative organ with an undefined but limited area of authority to legislate for those changes requisite to the ever-shifting and labyrinthic antagonisms and disputes in the world community. The third augments the others by the delegation of powers of an international character, including economic, social, cultural, and humanitarian activities not necessarily directly connected with the prevention of war or preservation of peace. The CWG, CFWC, WMWFG, and FU assume that this latter method will provide for a more dynamic equilibrium, although the FU would limit the federation to selected members. All of the groups are agreed that increased attention to the existence, needs, difficulties, and activities of the UN is necessary. All agree that one principal problem is to secure the support of the American public for the projected regional or global union.

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Our Babel of Language Myths

William Nosofsky

AN ELEMENT which has seldom been absent from Man's mental picture of the world in which he lives," observes Toynbee in his *Study of History*, "is a consciousness of the existence of 'foreigners' whose principal hall-mark is their unintelligible speech." More often than not, this awareness of "foreigners" and their "unintelligible speech" has led men everywhere and at all times to deride both the strange tongues and those who spoke them.

THE MYTH OF "SUPERIOR" LANGUAGES

IT HAS been customary for peoples to consider their own language superior to all others. To many Englishmen, some of our most characteristic words have seemed "hideous to the eye, offensive to the ear, meaningless to the brain," encouraging "mental indiscipline." Charles Dickens, who visited us in 1842, pointed out that "the oddest vulgarisms" were "received idioms" outside New York and Boston. Samuel Taylor Coleridge charged that we were a people without a language of our own.

The accusations leveled against the American language by the British (with some notable exceptions) were nothing new in history. Long ago the Greeks attached the term "barbarian" to all languages other than their own, the implication being that the "barbarian" languages were inferior. Later on the Arabs refused to admit that the sounds uttered by the Persians could properly be classified as a language. In his *Addresses to the German People*, the nineteenth century German philosopher, Fichte, maintained that the German language was infinitely stronger than French or Italian. One answer to Fichte and those who shared his opinion came from Brander Matthews, who after World War I stated flatly: "To the rest of the world, German is still an uncouth tongue." And still more recently, Walter

Pitkin, in his *History of Human Stupidity*, attempts to prove how stupid are the languages of the Bantus of Africa and the Chinese.

These examples could be multiplied endlessly. The assumption that one's own language is superior to all others has been, and remains, a major misconception. Fortunately, however, there is an ever-growing band, a Gideon's army of historians, philologists, anthropologists, and psychologists, that has been seeking, in the interest of truth and better human relations, to dispel these misconceptions.

What are some of the major myths, and what do scientists have to say about them?

RACE AND LANGUAGE

THE belief that race determines the basic features of language—its grammar, vocabulary, and sound—has been a pet theory of race chauvinists in France, Germany, the United States, and elsewhere. Take for instance, the idea that Chinese and Japanese are somehow biologically ill-equipped to pronounce certain sounds commonly employed in the English language.

The fact is that scientific authority flatly contradicts this idea. Max Muller, perhaps the foremost student of the Indo-European languages, was the first to demonstrate that the original Indo-European language was spoken by people who differed among themselves in the color of their skin, eyes, and hair; in stature; and in the shape of their heads. Edward Sapir, Professor of Anthropology and Linguistics at Yale University until his death in 1939, in refuting this idea, pointed out that the Malay-Polynesian languages are spoken by peoples as racially distinct as the Malays, Polynesians, and Negroes of Melanesia.

Biologically, the speech organs of all races are precisely alike. Add to this the fact that scholars have not yet discovered any innate racial mental differences and one can readily see that differences in language cannot be attributed to physical features such as skin color, shape of nose, or stature.

"There is no evidence," writes Jacobs and Stern in their *Outline of Anthropology*, "that

"That language should divide rather than unite mankind is surely one of the supreme ironies of man's story on earth," writes the author, who is a teacher of social studies in Public School No. 129, Brooklyn, New York.

African Negroids have tended to utilize certain sounds, and Chinese, Germans, or Slavs certain other sounds, as consequences of hereditary anatomical differences."

The different races learn to speak the languages of the groups in which they find themselves. Thus, the Negroid race today speaks numerous languages: French in France; Russian in Russia; and Bantu and other languages and dialects in Africa. An interesting illustration of this point occurred in 1945 when radio station WNEW in New York signed an all-Negro company to do a series of radio dramas. According to *Time* magazine, WNEW auditioned 70 Negro players, "discovered no differences between 'white' and 'Negro' voices, found voices for all types of parts from pure cockney to half-breed Mexican." This is true of other races. There are no Negroid, Mongoloid, or Caucasoid languages.

LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

ANOTHER common misconception is that people with the same culture must, necessarily, use the same language or belong to the same language family and, conversely, that certain languages can only be used in certain cultures. What are the facts?

In the first place, we have instances where peoples with a common culture speak radically different tongues. The Japanese, for example, borrowed a great part of their culture from the Chinese, but they use a completely different language.

Then, too, we find cases where peoples speak related languages but possess very different cultures. The Finns, who pursue what we call "civilized" ways, speak a language which belongs to the same family as the language of the Lapps—who rely on reindeer for their livelihood. Another example is that of the Ute Indians (who never got beyond the stage of gathering seeds for food) and the Aztec Indians (who had a relatively complex civilization). Despite this difference in cultural levels, the language of both groups belongs to the same Uto-Aztecan language stock.

It is when we consider the vocabulary of a language that we are tempted to proclaim the identity of language and culture, for it is true that different cultures employ different words. The Eskimos, for instance, have about 40 words for "ice." The Arabs, on the other hand, have about 20 words for "camel." Anthropologist Robert Lowie has related how the Crow Indians developed a word for "cat"—an animal which

was brought into their culture. Originally they had had only one domestic animal, the dog, which they called *miscye*. When they became acquainted with the cat, their first thought was to associate it with the mountain lion for which they had the word *icbi*. But an *icbi* could not be domesticated and was hence unlike a cat. They therefore added *miscye* to *icbi*, getting a new word: *icbimiscye* (an animal which was like the mountain lion but which could be domesticated, in short, a cat).

Although the vocabulary of a people will reflect its culture, that same vocabulary can be expanded to express any idea or thing known to any other people. In the words of Jacobs and Stern, "Bushman, Iroquois, or Guadalcanal Melanesian would be equally efficient vehicles for the vocabularies of specialists, and hundreds of languages, whether of Africa or Oceania will become such vehicles if and when, in coming decades, their social systems are modernized and industrialized and their speeches rendered literate."

Anthropologists have established the fact that the cultures of peoples have never had direct effects upon the kinds of sounds employed by those peoples. Nor have sounds had any influence upon culture.

LANGUAGE AND NATIONALITY

MANY people tend to associate language with nationality. This is understandable and, in part, valid: for example, the overwhelming majority of Frenchmen *do* speak French. It is when we assume that the boundaries of the French nation and the French language coincide that we begin to stray from the facts.

Languages have little regard for national boundaries. German is the everyday language of people who have never lived within the political limits of the German state. English, and its variants, is spoken in Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and other parts of the world. These examples could, of course, be multiplied.

Then, too, we find people *within* a given political unit speaking more than one language. Many Europeans, particularly in Central Europe, are bi- and even tri-lingual. In Belgium, French-speaking Walloons and the Flemish are members of a single political family. Switzerland embraces three distinct language groups. In the Union of South Africa, the English and Dutch populations still speak their own languages, while in Canada a large minority group resists speaking English altogether.

The picture we have, moreover, of a *single* Chinese tongue, a *single* Russian tongue, a *single* East Indian tongue simply does not correspond to reality. We imagine these tongues to be of one piece because the language of Texans, Californians, and New Yorkers is practically identical. In China, however, there are no less than nine principal dialects which are not as much alike as Dutch and English.

In the Soviet Union, there are more than 100 languages; in 1936, newspapers were printed there in 68 different tongues. This diversity is exceeded only in India where more than 200 languages and dialects are spoken.

In thinking about the national languages of different countries, we are also apt to consider them as wholly and purely German, wholly and purely Italian, etc. Actually there is no such thing as a "pure" language—just as there are no "pure" races. The major languages have indulged in considerable borrowing of words and have had little regard for political boundaries. "To the making of the American language," notes Horace M. Kallen, "have gone Greek and Hebrew and Latin and Norman and French and Spanish as well as 'Anglo-Saxon' and Huron and Cherokee and Yiddish and Pennsylvania Dutch and Louisiana French and Mexican Spanish and Minnesota Swedish and West Virginia Slavic and cracker English."

Then again, certain languages have served not merely as the media of communication within countries but also as bridges between the peoples of the world. Latin and Hebrew have been used by theologians; French by diplomats; German by scientists; and English by businessmen, diplomats, and educators.

Finally, history provides countless interesting exceptions to the notion that the nationals of a country will employ only the language of that country.

Long ago, East Indians wrote poetry in the Persian tongue. The educated Roman of a later period strove to master the Greek tongue and saw to it that his sons had the opportunity to do the same. Toynbee points out that Italian served at one time as the service language of the Ottoman and Turkish navies. He also notes that Gibbon, author of the *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, wrote his early historical works in French but switched to his native English after the defeat of the French in the French and Indian Wars. Frederick the Great, the leader of Prussia in that same war, wrote French verses and carried on a correspondence with Voltaire in

French. Closer to our own day, Conrad, the Pole, wrote his novels in English, while Arthur Koestler has written works in Hungarian, German, and English.

PRIMITIVE LANGUAGES

CHARLES DARWIN once spent some time at Tierra del Fuego on the southern tip of South America. He recorded his impression of its people and their language thus: "At the sight of these people one could hardly persuade oneself that they are fellow-men and fellow inhabitants of this planet. Their language scarcely merits the name of articulate speech."

This attitude toward primitive, non-Western peoples and languages is widely held. It rests upon four tacit assumptions: We assume, in the first place, that the vocabularies of "backward" peoples are extremely small. It is interesting to note, in view of this assumption, that the language which Darwin heard was later found to have a vocabulary of not less than 30,000 words. Anthropologists estimate that every existing language contains at least 5,000 words. Perhaps when compared with the several hundred thousand words we have in English, these numbers do indeed seem small. But two facts should be borne in mind here: First, that the huge English vocabulary is buried in dictionaries and is hardly ever drawn upon for everyday use (the whole system of Basic English rests upon the idea that we can get along on 850 English words); second, that we have many synonyms whose sole virtue is that they make for variety.

We assume, in the second place, that because their vocabularies are relatively small, these "primitive" tongues are pigmy-like and cannot grow. Actually, there is nothing inherent in the structure of *any* language which would prevent it from developing a vocabulary equal in size to our own. *All* languages are plastic and adaptable.

We assume, in the third place, that primitive sounds which differ from those which we use are, in addition, unpleasant and harsh. There is no scientific or aesthetic basis for these assumptions. As was previously indicated, all peoples have the *same* oral cavity in which sounds are produced. And even though it can be used to produce thousands of different sounds, it is a curious fact that every known human language employs only a small percentage of all possible sounds. The average number of basic sounds is between 30 and 40. A few languages may have slightly fewer than 30, a few more than 40. *All* languages have sounds of each of four major

types: stopped consonants (b, p, d, t, g, k); continuant consonants (z, s, v, f, th, sh); affricative consonants (dz, ts, tch); and vowels (a, e, i, o, u, ow, oy, ay). As for the unpleasantness of the sounds of "primitive" languages that is a matter of taste about which there can be no dispute.

We assume, in the fourth place, that the grammar of a primitive language is very rudimentary. This assumption is unfounded in fact. The grammars of many "backward," non-Western peoples are very complex. In the East before someone says "you," he must stop to think how far above or below him the person he is addressing is on the social ladder. A Malay speaker must choose the right form from among ten different social levels! Were complexity a criterion of superiority, English with its comparatively simple grammar, would have to be considered one of the lowest forms of human speech. Nor have we any right to regard simplicity as the index of superiority. Anthropologists are agreed that grammatical complexity and simplicity have nothing at all to do with levels of civilization. Simple and complex grammars have tended to develop among hunting peoples and among the wealthiest agricultural civilizations.

THE UNIVERSAL LANGUAGE

A NUMBER of myths clustering around the idea of one universal language remain to be considered. The first of these is that originally there was *one* tongue. This belief first appeared in the Book of Genesis: "And the whole earth was of one language and of one speech." Biblical scholars have maintained that Hebrew is the "one" language alluded to. Noah Webster concluded that all languages were derived from the original Chaldee. MacLean advanced the theory that Celtic was the mother language. And in our own day the Italian scholar Trombetti believed that he had found the starting point of all languages in India. What do our historians and philologists hold? Historian Toynbee maintains that modern Western knowledge does not know of any language which was once spread over the whole earth. The "one language" referred to in the Bible was probably the Sumerian tongue—so thinks Toynbee.

Philologist Margaret Schlauch in her *Gift of Tongues* expresses the belief that the case for a single ancestral tongue has not been proved. No matter how much we would like to believe

in the existence of such an original universal tongue, the evidence at hand remains far from conclusive.

ANOTHER misconception is the view held by C. K. Ogden, the inventor of Basic English; namely, that "*the absence of a common medium of communication is the chief obstacle to international understanding, and consequently the chief underlying cause of war.*" To make such an assertion is to brush aside historical evidence about the real sources of war.

Countless wars have been fought between people who spoke the same tongue: The United States and England; Germany and Austria; the civil wars of the United States, Spain, ancient Greece, and ancient Rome. Moreover, the United States went to war against Japan and Germany *not* because we did not understand what was in the minds of the Japanese and Germans, but because we knew only too well what they were thinking. Doubtless, a tongue known to all mankind would foster international understanding but such an international language could not settle basic differences in beliefs and interests.

A FINAL fallacy is the belief that linguists look with favor upon some artificially created language, such as *Esperanto*, as a *medium for international communication*. The truth is that linguists are, in the main, opposed to a synthetic international tongue. A Committee of the League of Nations, after studying the problem in the 1920's, recommended that efforts be placed upon acquiring a knowledge of the major living languages throughout the world. And in 1947, a majority of delegates from 30 nations attending a world conference of the teaching profession proposed that, as a step toward world peace, the schools of the world take up English as the second tongue, and that English be made the international language. Their contention was that English had already become the *Esperanto* of the present era.

If the myths dealt with above are really to be laid to rest, we will have to do more than to remember the factual evidence. We will also have to remember what Herbert Agar once stated so pithily: "A man's language is his very soul. It is his thoughts and almost all his consciousness. Laugh at a man's language and you have laughed at the man himself in the most inclusive sense."

The President's Economic Report, January 1949

Howard R. Cummings

AS A part of the Employment Act of 1946, to promote maximum employment, production, and purchasing power, Congress created in the President's Executive Office a Council of Economic Advisers. The Council is composed of three members, all exceptionally qualified economists, who are appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate. The task of the Council is to analyze, interpret, and appraise economic information and to formulate and recommend national economic policies which are wise in the light of these findings. The Council has set up a staff of 18 economists. The Council and staff help the President to keep abreast of all economic developments within and without the government. Close relations are maintained between the Council and other government agencies and the experience and views of these agencies are utilized in the report of the Council.

The Council issued three publications during 1948. The Midyear and Annual Economic Reports of the President are in two parts: (1) The President's reports, dealing broadly but succinctly with the high points of the Nation's economy; and (2) a report by the Council which includes the details of the economy and technical discussion of policies which might follow from the analysis undertaken by these economists.

MAKING USE OF THE REPORTS

THESE reports¹ of the Council should prove useful to high school teachers of social studies as well as to professional economists. One advantage of using these reports is that they are

This article calls attention to the Third Annual Report of the Council of Economic Advisers, and to the two Economic Reports of the President covering the year 1948.

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recurring reports which summarize economic conditions at six month intervals. They are clearly written and comparatively free of technical language, and they are available for a small sum. If the information contained in the reports is essential to the President and Congress, it is equally essential to the citizens who elect presidents and congressmen.

What use can the high school social studies teacher make of the reports?

1. Since the reports contain the President's recommendations, they will help the reader to understand and follow economic measures which are introduced in Congress.

2. The reports contain an analysis of a wide range of economic data an understanding of which helps the reader to grasp current economic problems in American life and world affairs.

This does not mean that the reports can be used only in the teaching of current affairs. The following quotation illustrates the framework of historical perspective in which many of the economic conclusions are reached:

Between the decade beginning in 1869 (earliest available estimates) and the decade ending in 1918, the gross output of the economy doubled about every 20 years.

From 1919 to 1929, a very high rate of expansion resulted in an increase of 33 percent. In the next 10-year period, including the Great Depression, but little gain was registered. . . . From 1939 to 1948, including the war years, the increase in output was resumed and a rise of more than 50 percent was accomplished. Thus, from 1919 to 1948 the output of the economy again doubled.

In addition to the increase in output, the number of leisure hours has risen substantially. In the last century, the hours worked were frequently as high as 70 or more per week. In manufacturing industries, the average weekly hours of work have dropped more than 20 percent since 1909.²

¹ The Council of Economic Advisers, *Third Annual Report to the President* (December, 1948, 15 cents); *The Midyear Economic Report of the President* with a report on *The Economic Situation at Midyear 1948* (July 1948, 45 cents); and *The Economic Report of the President to the Congress January 7, 1949*, together with a report, *The Annual Economic Review January 1949* (45 cents), U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C.

² *The Economic Report of the President, January 1949*, p. 51.

To what end should the people of the United States be directing their increased production and their lengthened leisure time? The report sets up the general economic objectives of American society as follows:

The end objective of our economic and political system is to provide the individual with the means of a high standard of living and with wider opportunities for cultural pursuits. These aims will be furthered by the dedication of more of our resources to education, to health, to housing, and to the enrichment of the whole physical environment—both rural and urban—in which people live, work, and play.²

Educational leaders should study these reports with the above paragraph in mind. During 1948, a labor force of 60 millions worked to produce an estimated 252 billions in goods and services. Of this total 16 billions were given to national defense and foreign aid. Looking forward to an era of peace and to a reorganized world economy, the educator can plan for a society in which, if the present level of employment is to last, an additional sum of from 10 to 12 billions would become available through private and public spending for the objectives outlined above. If full production and full employment are to be maintained in a free society, and the goods and services produced are to be used wisely to build a better life, a high level of educational statesmanship will be needed. It follows that an understanding of the functioning of our economy gained through continuing study of its operations will provide part of the necessary base for this statesmanship.

Let us follow the Council's report on the controversial question of profits:

Although a portion of the large profits earned during 1947 merely compensated for changes in prices, profits on the whole were above the levels necessary to furnish incentives and funds for the expansion of business and to promote the sustained health of the economy.

How applicable is that judgment one year later?

After considering the following factors, that corporate profits after taxes in 1948 were 15 percent higher than in 1947, that total corporate requirements for new capital funds were 7 percent lower in 1948 than in 1947, that corporate allowances for depreciation were increased, and that smaller funds were needed to maintain the same physical volume of inventories, the Council concludes: "In the light of these developments the conclusion reached last year is still valid."⁴

² *Ibid.*, p. 72.

But it would be a mistake to apply the generalization quoted above to all business in the economy. The Council adds:

The foregoing comment should not mark the fact that widely varying profit situations and trends exist, and that any proposed policies on the part of business, labor, and government should take account of these variations. The over-all ratio of profits to sales and net worth have declined somewhat for a number of the non-durable goods industries while the metal industries have shown increases. And the smallest manufacturing corporations, with assets of \$250,000 or less, are reporting average profit ratios well below their 1947 levels, while the largest manufacturing corporations, with assets above \$100,000,000, are running well ahead. The intermediate groups are showing profit ratios somewhat below their 1947 levels.⁵

The Council's special responsibility is to set out a program in the three areas of employment, production, and purchasing power. Sketch paragraphs of their analyses and recommendations in these areas follow.

EMPLOYMENT

THE daily news reports and the success of high school students in finding summer jobs have made schools aware of the high levels of employment which characterized 1948. Job opportunities were ample, not only for the large labor force with which we started the year, but also for more than a million additions during the year. Total civilian employment established a record annual level of 59.4 million. Less generally known is the following summary:

Although jobs in manufacturing increased by about half a million, a number of consumers' goods industries, such as textiles, electrical appliances, and shoes, showed some lay-offs and reduced the hours of some of their workers. Consequently, while average weekly hours remained essentially unchanged in most major industrial groups, a number of revisions downward and few upward meant that the average hours of work per employed person for the economy as a whole were just below the level of 1947.⁶

What of the future?

It is estimated that the labor force will increase by nearly one million during 1949. This increase will reflect not only the increase in the population of working age but also the large number of students under the G.I. program who will complete their training and education. The civilian employment goal for 1949 should include provisions of useful work opportunities for the net increase in the labor force. Maximum employment means steady work at customary hours, not work sharing. While some temporary frictional unemployment is inevitable

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 10.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 10.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 1.

in a fluid economy, its volume should be kept as near as possible to the present low level.⁷

PRODUCTION

WITH record numbers employed at only slightly reduced weekly hours, the economy produced 4 percent more goods and utilities in 1948 than in 1947. All major categories showed noticeable increases except transportation, which was close to its 1947 level. Highest gains were made by the electric and gas utilities, where output rose 11 percent, and by the construction industry where the volume of new construction was 14 percent higher.

Total agricultural output increased 9 percent, thanks to bumper crops. But the total supplies of food currently available to the consumer were somewhat smaller than in 1947. Industrial production (manufacturing and mining) in 1948 was 3 percent higher than in the previous year. For services (trade, finance, and government), quantitative measurement of output is difficult. Roughly measured by the volume of employment, the year's total activity in trade increased by about 3 percent, in finance and service by 2 percent, and in government by 4 percent in 1948.

What is the goal for 1949?

An increase in the total production of goods and services of 3 or 4 percent or 8 to 10 billion dollars measured in 1948 prices should be regarded as a reasonable objective for this year. In agriculture, the improvement in plant and the abundance of last year's feed crops promise a continued high total output with an increase in livestock products which would somewhat improve consumption standards for our people. On the industrial side about 50 billion dollars has been invested in expansion and modernization since the end of the war. Hence the slight increase in output per man-hour which occurred last year should be enlarged upon this year. In spite of these improvements in industrial productivity, there will still be several bottlenecks where there are persistent shortages of capacity for producing electric power and critical materials, particularly certain metals. Industry and government should press their efforts to overcome these shortages.⁸

PURCHASING POWER

AFTER 1945 people set about earnestly to raise their levels of consumption, and especially sought houses and furnishings, electrical appliances, and automobiles.

By 1948 there were indications that some of the extraordinary demands were tapering off. Consumption expenditure ceased to go up faster than disposable personal income. The rapid rate of increase in consumer credit was slowed.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 36.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 36.

Disposable personal income (income after taxes) in 1948 amounted to 190 billion dollars; in 1947 it was 174 billion. Adjusted for changes in consumer prices, however, disposable personal income per capita was substantially the same for both years.

Total consumption in real terms has been raising since the war, as shown by unit sales of durable and by production of non-durable goods. Food consumption has declined slightly. The pattern of consumer expenditures continues to differ markedly from that before the war. Expenditures for durable and non-durable goods have increased much more than for services. Outstanding is the purchase of automobiles, expenditures for which continue to increase faster than for almost any other type of purchase. The increase in other durable goods expenditure appears to have tapered off. We are still far from obtaining the amount and distribution of consumer income in relation to the other component parts of the economy which seem essential for balanced economic growth.

What about the future?

In an economy of steady growth moving from postwar to peacetime conditions, the output of consumer goods and services should increase not only in absolute amounts but also in ratio to total production. In 1948, consumers were receiving about 70 percent of gross output, compared with 76 percent in 1929 and 75 percent in 1939. Even allowing for the contingency that government expenditures and net exports may hereafter account for a larger portion of the Nation's Economic Budget than in previous periods of high employment, it is felt that final consumers should absorb at least 75 percent of all goods and services within a few years.

THE following paragraph should be of particular interest to the teacher of American problems and for educational leaders generally:

In schools, housing, health, and community facilities, resource development and conservation, transportation and other fields, there are enormous discrepancies between the work now being done and the needs of a growing economy. Advance planning on all these fronts should go forward in larger magnitudes than present programs can be pushed. With careful timing, these programs should be stepped up sufficiently so that adjustments in costs, prices and profits can be made on a strong underpinning which prevents adjustments from turning into a downswing.⁹

(Continued on page 236)

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 77.

Undergraduate Social Service and Research in the Community

Arthur Katona

SOCIOLOGISTS must reckon with the fact that the overwhelming majority of their students do not go into graduate study and yet a large number of them get jobs for which, presumably, graduate training in sociology is desirable. We know, for instance, that many people doing "social work" have not had professional training; indeed it is a question of how sizeable a proportion of them have had any college education at all. Professionally trained social workers constantly run up against the disheartening situation of county, city, or state workers who are on the job because of political or social pull and have neither interest in nor aptitude for their calling.¹ Colleges and universities must assume their share of the blame for this situation in that they delegate field and research training almost exclusively to graduate students and neglect these vital educational activities for undergraduates.

Not only do immediate practical considerations of student training and fulfillment of community needs call for more societally oriented undergraduate learning; the general objectives of a liberal education require it. A genuine liberal education requires that we live the good life, as well as study about it. Liberal education, as we conceive it, ties in with the sorely needed integration of school and society stressed by progressive educators. Liberal education enables us to fuse such opposites as verbalism and experience, intellect and emotion, academic study and life participation.

VALUES IN COMMUNITY-ORIENTED WORK

COMMUNITY-ORIENTED courses help to provide a common background of social

The problem of developing better school-community relations is commanding an increasing amount of attention. The author, an assistant professor in the Department of Effective Living at Michigan State College (East Lansing), here suggests one approach to the problem.

learning for all students, including those taking a general liberal arts program as well as those specializing in a narrow technical field. For the sake of pointing up the need for community work, however, we have chosen to discuss its value to four different student groups. As in all groupings of this nature, there are, of course, overlappings, but the differentiation will help to emphasize certain basic needs.

Preprofessional. Doubtless all sociologists will grant that sociology courses provide much-needed background for such professions as social work, teaching, medicine, nursing, physical education, law, ministry, journalism, diplomatic service, and engineering. An understanding of community living in a context of national and world cultures is a *must* for anyone whose lifework will be the giving of special service to others. Obviously students doing preliminary study for the "sociological" professions fall into this group.

Professional. Students who have completed the pre-professional requirements for medicine, law, or social work and who have started their professional training will find sociology, particularly that with community emphasis, of great value. Needless to say, students training for the "sociological" professions should get plenty of field work in community service and research.

Leaders. Some students will eventually, irrespective of their occupations, become leaders in the political, religious, or social life of the community. They may win the positions of leadership merely because of business or social connections, or they may win them because of superior ability and the strength of personality. Whatever the reasons for their success, community leaders will benefit from the study of and practical training in sociology; and it follows, of course, that the community itself will be the better for having such leaders.

Citizens. Surely a primary duty of education is the development of responsible citizens actively interested in and working for the welfare of their community and of the larger society around it. Books alone will not fulfill this duty, but books combined with living community experience may. Understanding of and interest in local life and its relationship to the society in general will make the student a better member of the community and of the world.

There are other reasons for a socialized liberal education. A community-oriented educational program will help the student find his in-

¹In-service training, of course, is one solution of the problem of the untrained social worker, but this topic is beyond the scope of the present paper.

terests and capabilities. Misfits will be discovered; buried talents will be released. There are students majoring in sociology or the more specialized field of social work who are good at their books, who get high grades in their courses and seem like excellent prospects to their instructors, but who are poor at handling people. They find themselves helpless, for example, in interviewing a parent or in directing a group of youngsters in a settlement house. Conversely, there are students who can attain only mediocre grades in their academic work—too academic, alas—but who make excellent case workers or group workers. They "have a way with people."

Finally, a student has to begin practical work, whether service or research, somewhere. Why not in a school-community setting under the guidance of an instructor and with the stimulation of fellow students? Here mistakes are not fatal to the student's career, nor unduly harmful to others. The make-or-break tension of beginning a real job on the outside does not exist and confidence and ability are built up gradually and surely.

FOUR USEFUL APPROACHES

THE four approaches to community study and work described below may be employed separately or in combination depending upon the maturity level of the student and the project being undertaken.

Observation-visit (for freshmen and others). One of the most useful methods for studying the community, and one long used by many teachers, is to send the students out to observe and compare. An interesting account of this type of activity is contained in Juvanta Harper Kirner, "Sociology Uses the Nation's Capitol."² Mrs. Kirner's students visited "The National Museum, the National Geographic Society, and the Congressional Library, with their exhibits, murals, and films of cultural patterns of primitive and exotic peoples." They spent a morning in the Smithsonian Institute seeing "material cultural accumulation" for themselves. They walked through "the worst slums in the city, located not a stone's throw from the Capitol building," and then visited some of the exclusive neighborhoods. From the Junior Police and the Junior Citizens they learned what was being done to reduce delinquency in the tough parts of the city. They visited Negro institutions and discovered that other races were folks like themselves. They took a trip to the museum of the Department of In-

terior and heard about the United States Indian policy from the curator. A play, "Three's a Family," which they saw at the National Theater stimulated the study and discussion of family problems. Visits to the F.B.I., nursery schools, elementary schools, the U. S. Office of Education, the National Cathedral, the museum of the Department of Commerce, the Norwegian Embassy, the House, the Senate, and the Supreme Court, threw light on a number of economic and social topics.

In a community organization course of mine set up principally for social work majors, we visit local welfare agencies and institutions. Each student selects for further observation and study the agency or institution in which he is most interested. On the basis of additional trips and of interviews he writes a report and presents it to the class.

Social analysis (for freshmen and others). First-hand observations become increasingly valuable to the extent that students have the opportunity to analyze their experiences in the light of their studies, thus checking the written word by what they actually see in the world around them. Many students quickly develop considerable skill in analyzing the social patterns in their own community. Take, by way of illustration, the following brief excerpt from a comprehensive survey that a college freshman made of his home town. In the course of his analysis of the various population groups, the student wrote of the "foreign-born German-Russians," who, for the most part, are still unassimilated.

Most of these people cannot read or write in any language, and few speak English with any degree of fluency. Instead they use a dialect of Russian, German, and English. Their numbers are gradually being lessened by death, due to old age. They are not all naturalized citizens. The second generation have for the most part attended grammar school and speak both the dialect and fair English. The third generation are very little, if any, different from the native-born children of other groups. The foreign born are reluctant to give up their old customs of dress. Very often the woman still wears her long black skirt and shawl when she goes to church. The men wear small fur caps and smoke large curved pipes.

The report from which this quotation was taken reveals that the freshman has a keen flair for sociology. Surveys and analyses of the type undertaken by this student help to reveal sociological talent early in the college years. (Incidentally, I have found that it is better to begin work on such a project in the middle of the semester when the student has become oriented to the course.)

² *Junior College Journal* (September, 1944), Pp. 13-17.

Social research (mainly for students beyond the freshman level). In social research the student may employ a number of techniques, including the use of interviews, questionnaires, case studies, statistics, and experiments. These techniques need to be learned and developed through practice. Students of the Campus Religious Council and the class in Race Relations at one university, for example, learned something about interviewing (as well as much about prevailing attitudes and practices) when, in the course of a study of discrimination against Negroes, they questioned local restaurant owners.³ It seems hardly necessary to emphasize the importance of developing the tools of social research as an essential part of the equipment of all citizens.

*Social service (mainly for students beyond the freshman year).*⁴ Numerous community agencies need help in making plans and carrying on activities. They are often delighted to have the assistance of interested students. For example, three sociology students from Ohio University, acting in response to a request from an over-worked Salvation Army official, almost completely took over the responsibility for two girls' groups. The report that they submitted shows something of what they and the Salvation Army

³For a detailed discussion of the educational implications of social research see Arthur Katona, "Project-Research: A Survey of Race Relations in a Northern Town," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XX (November 1946), 129-139.

⁴For an interesting experience in which high school students systematically take part in social service activities, see Emma L. Bolzau and Emily D. Stevenson, "Volunteer Student Social Service Project," in this issue of *Social Education* (Pp. 237-238).—Editor.

gained from the experience:

Working at the Salvation Army seemed to provide us with a typical background for group work, since group work is carried on, according to Arthur E. Fink, within the framework of an institutional setting, with voluntary groups during leisure time under the guidance of a group leader. Although on the whole we felt that both the girls and we ourselves benefited by our experience we realize that there was much left undone, and still much to be desired. If we had started earlier in the semester we would have had more opportunity to develop a well organized program.

The Salvation Army Corps leader, although a capable adult director, is rather at a loss in the Army's youth program. She accounted for this by saying she had not worked with children for a number of years. She had little knowledge of the Sunbeam and Guard programs and of the program and achievements of the local group before her arrival. So we did the best we could and improvised. It was not for several weeks that we had a clear idea of our responsibilities because the handbooks had not arrived.

IN CONCLUSION

COMMUNITY-ORIENTED education helps to reduce the gap between school and life. It helps to develop intelligent and active citizens who are aware of community problems and who are willing to work to solve them. More specifically, community-oriented education will help to develop better trained and more enthusiastic social workers, group workers, and other social service personnel.

Not least important, such education tends to gain community interest in and support for better schools and better salaries for teachers. The low level of teacher status and income is too well known to need comment. One way to win the good will and material support of the community is to be concerned with its welfare and to actively work for its improvement.

THE PRESIDENT'S ECONOMIC REPORT

(Continued from page 233)

The gross national income and its division among the different groups in our economic society are a measuring stick which must be used when all problems involving the expenditures of public or private funds are considered. Both the national income and the shares which come to the various economic groups may change at short intervals. The weather, managerial policy,

consumer demands, labor demands, banking practices, and government policy all affect the volume of production and the pattern of distribution. To think effectively about contemporary problems teachers and students should turn to these recurring reports for basic information about the national economy. This information is needed by every social studies teacher.

Volunteer Student Social Service Project

Emma L. Bolzau and Emily D. Stevenson

IF AWARENESS of civic responsibility as an ideal of citizenship is to be inculcated in our students, they must be taught to feel themselves a part of the community. Such was the conclusion reached some eight years ago by the social science teachers of South Philadelphia High School for Girls.

How was this awareness of civic responsibility to be developed? The answer was found in a plan for voluntary service in the social and public agencies of the community. Students placed in these agencies two or three hours a week would serve the two-fold purpose of giving help where it was sorely needed and of acquiring for themselves a consciousness of their duty to contribute something to the community institutions which did so much for them and for their families.

DEVELOPING THE PROJECT

DURING the early days of the project, we made many mistakes. At first the students themselves went to the agencies and volunteered their services—thirty-five the first semester, eighty-five the second. Some of the agencies took more girls than they could use, and frequently students were doing work for which they were not qualified and which they did not like.

As the result of experience, however, we have developed a fairly satisfactory system. About ten days before the beginning of each semester, we send a requisition blank to the social service agencies in South Philadelphia with a request

Here is one example of a well-established project by means of which students serve their community and, in the process, gain valuable experience for themselves. The authors are social studies teachers in South Philadelphia High School for Girls.

Other teachers, some of whom are no longer in the social studies department of the school, who have contributed much to the success of this project are Rebecca Altschuler, Gertrude Bergman, Cora Horwitz, Adele Kubert, and Sarah L. Miller.

that the blanks be filled in and returned by a specified date. With this information before us, we are able to list each agency's requirements on a separate card which we place in a loose-leaf folder. On each card, opposite the explanation of the kind of work needed and the time it can be done, are ruled spaces. During the first week of the semester, this folder of cards is sent to the social studies classes and the students, with the teachers' help, examine the available jobs and sign their names in the blank spaces on the cards.

Meanwhile, the students receive application blanks. On these they indicate their special interests and the hours they are free to work. Each of these blanks is signed by the girls and her parents. The blanks also contain a letter of introduction to the agency, as well as space for an attendance record.

With these two sets of forms—one from the agencies, one from the girls—we are able to match the requests of the agencies with the interests and aptitudes of the students, and if a girl has chosen her work unwisely we are able to talk with her before any harm has been done. On the whole, we feel that we have managed in this way to simplify what is at best a rather complicated procedure.

The great variety of work offered falls roughly into six classes: nurses' aides in hospitals; library aides; clerical work, including a great variety of jobs from general office work, such as filing, addressing envelopes, and typing, to clipping newspapers; clinical assistants to dentists and doctors in social agencies; receptionists in hospitals; pure social work with children's groups, such as storytelling, play supervision, arts and crafts, and day nursery assistants. (During the war the project was expanded to include war activities such as draft and rationing boards.)

No pressure is put upon the students to volunteer. Instead, each teacher stresses in her classes the necessity for the development of social consciousness in our troubled world. Many girls meet the challenge and the teacher feels that this is class time well-spent.

EVALUATING THE WORK

SHOULD school credit be given for this social service work? After much discussion, we answered this question affirmatively. If a student can earn maximum credit for poring over books in a library to increase her academic knowledge, why should she not be compensated as well for giving up one afternoon a week for at least fifteen weeks, and going often a considerable distance to perform tasks that many times prove more arduous than book work? This does not mean that we encourage this type of work at the expense of academic work. Many of our girls do both, but for most of our students who are not "book-minded" it is an ideal way of getting some practical experience—an aspect not lost on our girls—and developing their character by persevering at a task over a long period of time. We feel that here is an approximation of real-life experience. After some experimenting it was decided to add points, in accordance with the hours of service rendered, to the student's social studies mark. No credit is given for less than thirty hours, nor for more than forty-five. It is felt that unless a student gives thirty hours, her work will be of little value to a busy agency that has taken time to give the initial training. The maximum of forty-five was set to prevent a student from over-working at the expense of her health or school work.

Credit is not given *ipso facto*. Toward the end of the semester an evaluation sheet for each student is sent to the agency. This evaluation sheet is in the form of a questionnaire asking for the number of hours of work completed, as well as for comments on the judgment, cooperation, and efficiency of the student. A request for suggestions as to how the procedure can be improved so as to be of more service to the agency is also included. Dates are set for the return of these reports. Then they are compared by the classroom teacher with similar sheets the girls have made out for themselves—evaluating their own work. On this sheet there are questions asking what

contribution they feel they made to the agency, and what value the work had for them. Some of these comments are very enlightening. The most frequent ones are: "I was able to meet a lot of new people"; "It gave me confidence in meeting people"; "I loved working with the children"; "I feel I am getting a lot of experience for a paid job later."

We try to impress upon the students the necessity of fulfilling their obligation faithfully once they have been accepted by an agency. They are warned to notify the agency in case of necessary absence, and to offer to make up the time lost, if this can be arranged. If during the semester, some unforeseen emergency arises, such as illness in the home or the need to take a regular paid job after school, a student is freed from her obligation, providing she notifies the agency and talks it over with the teacher in charge of the project. The agencies have been very understanding about such eventualities. We ask them to notify us immediately about any dereliction of duty.

Many girls like the experiences so well that they return to the same agency the following term. Agencies often request the return of specific students when making their requisition for the new term. Quite a few girls have been offered permanent jobs after graduation as a result of the contacts made.

At one time during the war we had over three hundred students engaged in this work. Because of the smaller school population now, and the fact that after the war many of the agencies were able to get more paid help, the number has dropped somewhat. The number of volunteers remains, however, consistently around two hundred and they serve about thirty agencies in South Philadelphia and in downtown Philadelphia. If the agencies did not feel that this work was valuable to them, we do not believe they would continue to request it term after term. The grateful letters we have received from them attest to their appreciation.

NOMINATIONS FOR COUNCIL OFFICERS

Officers of the National Council for the Social Studies are elected at the annual conventions. The next election will be in November, 1949, during the Baltimore meeting, at which time the Council will choose a president, a first vice president, a second vice president, and three members of the Board of Directors.

Please send all nominations to the chairman of the committee on nominations, Robert H. Reid, 43B North Forrest Ave., Rockville Center, New York.

The School and the Social Processes

Kenneth Evans

WHAT teacher of history has not at one time or another met the question, "Why study something that happened so long ago? What good does such study do me?" In reply to these questions we have tried to demonstrate that a knowledge of history is essential if we are to understand the world in which we now live and if we are to make intelligent plans for the future.

To the man lost in the woods it may be clear that what he needs to know most is how he got there—not so that he may then retrace his steps, but that he may plot a course that will bring him out most quickly. Not so clear, usually, is the relation between history and the understanding and solving of our present problems.

PRESIDENT FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT in his last public address (delivered by proxy two days after his unexpected death), said that one of our greatest needs following World War II was the development of a "science of human relations" which would enable us to live at peace with our fellowmen. This is perhaps the first time that a President of the United States has suggested publicly that the relations of human beings might be amenable to scientific treatment.¹

President Roosevelt was not alone in his recognition of the importance of the social sciences. There is a growing awareness that man's problems are essentially social problems. This awareness has come surprisingly late. Through the past three centuries man has directed his talents for problem solving, invention, and discovery primarily to the mastery of the physical and natural sciences. As a result, we live in an age characterized by tremendous control over the physical environment.

More recently and with more limited results

man's talents for problem solving, invention, and discovery have been directed to problems of human relations. Awed by the terrifying possibilities of atomic warfare, men have become aware of the need for social controls to the end that science and technology may contribute to the welfare rather than to the destruction of mankind. Some physicists, in fact, have recently been discussing these problems of social control as though they, the physicists, had just discovered the existence of social phenomena.

Today's problems, then, are problems of human relations. If we do not as yet know how to solve these problems, we certainly know from what general area of human experience the solutions must come—if they are to come at all. Those of us who are seeking to make the world more intelligible to growing boys and girls have at hand in the larger life of the school and the community much of the raw material that we need. The school is not only a place where these processes go on, but it is continuously involved in the wider social processes in the community of which it is a part.

THE SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY

THE social processes are simply those processes of interaction and inter-communication that go on among and between the members of groups as they discuss, disagree, and compromise on matters of policy and action. They are the processes by which men define their problems and arrive at generally accepted solutions. There are, of course, as many concrete social processes as there are groupings of men, but virtually all the specific, concrete processes fall into one or the other of two general classifications: the political processes broadly conceived to include most forms of conflict; and the cultural processes which include most forms of agreement, compromise, accommodation or assimilation.

In every human community, small or large, there is constant interplay of these processes, and the school occupies a central position in their operation as conflicts arise over problems, as

This is the condensed version of a paper given before the social science section of the Texas State Teachers Association meeting in Dallas, Texas, in March, 1948. The author is professor of sociology at East Texas State Teachers College, Commerce, Texas.

¹ John P. Gillin, *The Ways of Men* (New York: Appleton-Century Company, 1948), p. xii.

solutions to these problems gradually emerge out of compromise, and as the school performs the function of handing on to each new generation the fruits of the whole program.

WHILE these political processes are still in the stage of overt conflict the school occupies a difficult position. In the first place, people of the community or nation inevitably take sides, form groups, and undertake to get their own position accepted by the majority. The way in which they align themselves by interpreting issues and weighing short-run selfish ends against long-run general welfare may in part be the product of what the school has given them of information, insight, and understanding, as well as of their individual non-school experience.

But more significant than this indirect relation of the school to the political processes of conflict in the community are the obvious efforts of the many conflicting groups to use the schools to pass on their "truth" to the unbiased and unsuspecting younger generation. Here the function of the school in the social process of solving problems requires careful weighing, and the manner in which the school discharges its obligation is fraught with various possibilities for either good or ill to the community it seeks to serve. Conflict groups of all kinds, realizing the potential influence of the school in shaping the opinions of each new generation in a free society, have sought to use the tax-supported schools as channels for their doctrines by providing materials, by changing the curriculum, or by choosing the teaching personnel.

In view of the perplexing and contradictory nature of this situation, the school has but one safe course to follow. Since the school is only a segment of society, the major portion of the job of formulating policies and working out solutions to these problems belongs to the community. On most major issues the school can only wait for the conflicting groups to work out their compromises and to arrive at some agreement before it is in a position to incorporate the matter into its curriculum. This is true whether the problems on which decisions are still pending are local, national or international; whether they are problems of industrial conflict, of social security programs, of race relations, or of international relations and world order.

This does not preclude, at appropriate places in the school, a plain recognition and unbiased treatment of the important current controversies going on in the community, but it does preclude

the selection by the school or teacher of one outcome to the exclusion of all others before the larger community has reached a verdict more or less acceptable to all parties or to the majority. When community-wide accommodations are worked out by the conflicting parties, thus bringing the political process to a temporary resting place, these accommodations become a part of the heritage of American experience to be transmitted to the young. When such accommodations as the Constitution and the Bill of Rights are reached, they are incorporated into the curriculum and transmitted by the schools until such time as controversy again arises over matters of meaning and interpretation and new accommodations are achieved.³

THE SOCIAL FUNCTION OF EDUCATION

IN GENERAL, education has three basic social functions: first, the transmission of culture, including its accumulated traditions, skills, knowledge, ideals, beliefs, and moral and ethical codes; second, the diffusion of culture, or the spreading of culture to all members of the community; and third, the creation of culture through invention and discovery. In the first two of these processes the school finds its most important social function.

The school is established and maintained by the community in order that its way of life may be continued and that its youthful members may be prepared to take their places in that already established community. The school, then, is an agency for conserving the social and cultural values of the group, and the group expects the school to hand on its culture—its established traditions and ideals—intact. This function of the school has been particularly important to our own nation, which has sought to amalgamate into one whole the immigrant representatives of many diverse cultures. But the task of developing an understanding of American ideas and ideals applies not only to representatives of other cultures; it applies as well to the native born of native parents who may, in an age where emphasis is placed upon so-called utilitarian, vocational subjects and upon early technical specialization, miss much that has been normally thought of as the basic heritage of all Americans.

This faithful transmission of the American cultural heritage is indoctrination, it is true, and

³ For a detailed analysis of the school in relation to the social processes, see Waller Willard, *The Sociology of Teaching* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1932), chapter 3.

indoctrination is, to many people, a distasteful word. Nevertheless, a realistic appraisal of the function of the school in the social process can lead to no other tenable position as to its responsibility to the community of which it is a part. And in no other way can we hope to equip citizens for participation in the political processes by which we solve our problems. In no other way can we hope to develop citizens who will understand issues, to formulate policies, and reach solutions within the broad framework of our traditional social, economic, and political organization so as to preserve the basic freedoms inherent in that tradition.

It is not, unfortunately, enough to recognize that indoctrination in Americanism is the basic function of the school in the cultural process. If we lived in an absolutely static society, absolute and complete indoctrination in the tradition of the group would be adequate preparation for citizenship. But we live in, perhaps, the most dynamic society that ever existed and the products of our schools and of our social studies classes must be prepared to accept and adjust to change.

The school also has a responsibility for the

diffusion of culture. Teachers have, or should have, a wider acquaintance with the world than most citizens in the community. They are, or should be, more directly in contact with new ideas and new sources of information. With this advantage teachers incur a responsibility to contribute to the growth of community understanding. Their work cannot end in the classroom. As community leaders, they can and should help to bring people together to the end that conflicts may be thoroughly discussed and new accommodations worked out for local and national problems.

Viewed from this perspective, the job of the social studies teacher calls for the highest qualities of leadership. He must have a clear grasp of the basic American—or democratic—ideals. He must understand how these ideals are developed and altered by the people themselves. He must have a pretty clear picture of the forces at work in his own community. This knowledge he must pass on to his students. At the same time, he must be prepared to work in the community itself in an effort to broaden the area of common understandings.

COMMUNITY PLANNING IN A DEMOCRACY

This source unit for teachers is the third in the Community Study Series published by the National Council for the Social Studies for the Maxwell Graduate School of Citizenship and Public Affairs.

This teaching unit deals with an important topic on which teachers have little other readily available material. It analyzes community planning and provides a host of valuable teaching suggestions.

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Notes and News

New Publications

Two new publications in the "How To Do It" series are now available: Number 5, "How To Use a Newspaper," and number 6, "How To Use Group Discussion." These six-page leaflets contain practical and useful classroom techniques for social studies teachers. Earlier publications in this series that are still available are "How To Use a Textbook" and "How To Use a Motion Picture." Each leaflet sells for ten cents and may be ordered from the National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

Baltimore, 1949

Be sure to set aside the dates of November 24-26 and plan to attend the Twenty-Ninth Annual Meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies to be held in Baltimore, Maryland. Headquarters for the meeting will be at the Lord Baltimore Hotel. All social studies teachers and other interested individuals are cordially invited to attend. A varied program is being planned by Erling M. Hunt, Teachers College, Columbia University, chairman of the Program Committee. Under the chairmanship of Harry Bard of the Baltimore Public Schools, individuals and groups in Baltimore and vicinity are working hard on local arrangements for the meeting.

New Contributing Members

In addition to the names listed in the March issue of *Social Education*, the National Council for the Social Studies has received several more Contributing Memberships. Contributing Memberships, at \$10 per year, include a clothbound copy of the Yearbook; a copy of each Bulletin, Curriculum Series, and pamphlet published by the National Council during the year of membership; and free registration at the Annual Meeting. These Contributing Members make a valuable contribution to our profession and to the National Council through their added financial support. The officers of the National Council take this means of thanking them for their help. Included here are Contributing Memberships received through March 1949. With the current renewal, R. O. Hughes has been a Contributing Member for the past six years; Gail Farber and

Verna L. White for the past five years; Julian C. Aldrich and J. T. Greenan for the past four years; Elgin (Illinois) Public Schools, Michigan State Normal College, and Edith E. Starratt for the past three years; and Clara H. Carlson, John H. Hamburg, and Western Kentucky State College Library for the past two years. Phillip J. Furlong, C. A. Herrick, Eleanor Justman, Pauline Pogue, Seattle Public Library, Leo Shapiro, State Teachers College Library (Stevens Point, Wisconsin), and Wallace Taylor are new Contributing Members.

Atlanta

The Atlanta (Georgia) Area Council for the Social Studies held five meetings and one pilgrimage during this school year. As one of its projects, the group is studying the 18- to 21-year-old voters of Georgia, the youngest voters in the union. Another group project is the study of Georgia and the Southern region, its industry and resources. This Council will hold its next meeting in May with the Georgia Historical Society in La Grange and will include a visit to historical homes and gardens. George H. Slappey is president, and Marie Kerrison is secretary of the Atlanta Area Council. Other officers and committee members include Roy Hutson, Warren Jackson, Lydia Guice, Jack Taylor, Jessie Lowe, Ludie Simpson, Tommie Martin, and Grady Randolph.—G. H. S.

Nebraska

W. Francis English, president of the National Council for the Social Studies, spoke at the annual meeting of the Nebraska History Teachers Association, in Lincoln, April 29-30. His topic was "Perspective and Balance in the Social Studies." At a dinner meeting, Albin T. Anderson, University of Nebraska, served as moderator of a panel discussion on "What Shall We Teach About Soviet Russia." Dean C. H. Oldfather, University of Nebraska, was a forum speaker on "What May We Expect from the United Nations?" A panel of classroom teachers outlined and evaluated the "World History" course as it is taught in their schools and made recommendations concerning texts and teaching materials. There was also a demonstration of audio-visual aids and techniques.—E. S.

North Carolina

The North Carolina Council for the Social Studies met in conjunction with the North Carolina Education Association on April 8. Fred Couey, Air University, Maxwell Field, spoke on "Social Change, Its Meanings for Social Studies Teachers," and Helen Macon, Central High School, Charlotte, spoke on "Observation of Two Years' Teaching in Europe." The Council is sponsoring a "Spring Conference on Social Education," with general sessions and group discussions for consideration of particular teaching problems in the social studies. Plans are being developed for a "Summer Conference on Social Education," sponsored by the Council and aimed at a thorough-going consideration of significant problems of social education. If the new State Department social studies curriculum bulletin is available, the conference will study its implications for teaching. This will be a two- or three-day conference in August tentatively scheduled to be held on the University of North Carolina campus.—C. M. C.

Minnesota

The Annual Spring Conference of the Minnesota Council for the Social Studies was held on April 1 in St. Paul. At the opening general session, following greetings from Superintendent Berg of St. Paul, Edith West spoke on "Forthcoming Publications of the National Council for the Social Studies," and Josephine Kremer spoke on "Moving Ahead in the Social Studies." At the luncheon meeting, John G. Simmons, Minneapolis, addressed the group on "How Socialistic is President Truman's Fair Deal?" In the afternoon, there were six section meetings discussing the following topics: "Social Studies at the Elementary Level," "The Common Learnings Program in the Minneapolis Public Schools," "Current Events in History Courses," "What Shall We Teach in the Ninth Grade?" "Training for Citizenship: U. S. and British Style," and "The Social Science Course at the College Level." This was followed by a business meeting and a dinner meeting, at which Robert S. Hartman, Ohio State University, spoke on "The Good Has Another Chance."

South Carolina

The South Carolina social studies teachers met in Columbia on March 17 in conjunction with the annual meeting of the South Carolina Education Association. W. C. Overton of Columbia,

president of the SCEA Department of Social Sciences, presided at the luncheon meeting and afternoon session. Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary of the NCSS, addressed the group on "Social Studies Trends and Responsibilities of Teachers and Social Studies Organizations." Claude D. Gentry, Jr., is the new president of the SCEA Department of Social Sciences.

C. D. G.

Texas

Burr W. Phillips, University of Wisconsin, and a member of the National Council for the Social Studies Board of Directors, met with a number of groups of social studies teachers in Texas during the week of March 21. This series of meetings was arranged and sponsored by the National Council for the Social Studies. Local groups in each of the cities took care of local arrangements and helped with the financing of the trip. The places of these meetings and the person in charge of local arrangements for each meeting were as follows: March 21, Port Arthur, Jewell Holli-man; March 22, Beaumont, Alyce McWilliams; March 23, Houston, Helen Weinberg; March 24, Dallas, Myrtle Roberts; March 25, Amarillo, Superintendent of Schools, Charles M. Rogers; and March 26, Canyon, Hattie Anderson, West Texas State College.

Northwestern Pennsylvania

The social studies teachers of Northwest Pennsylvania met at Edinboro State Teachers College on April 7 and organized the Northwestern Pennsylvania Council for the Social Studies. Arrangements for this meeting were made by Luther V. Hendricks of the Edinboro State Teachers College. At the opening general session, Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary of the NCSS, addressed the group on "Activities in the Social Studies Organizations and the Responsibilities of Social Studies Teachers." This was followed by six section meetings discussing the following topics: "What criteria should be used as a basis for the selection of textbooks? How can textbooks be used more effectively?" "How can pupils be taught to prepare and use maps and other closely-related visual aids so that this knowledge becomes an effective tool for constant use?" "How can geography contribute to a better insight into human problems?" "To what extent should pupils participate in planning their work in social studies?" "How should controversial issues be taught?" "What should be included in a course in Problems of American Democracy?" At the

dinner meeting, L. H. Van Houten, president, Edinboro State Teachers College, welcomed the group, and Allen Y. King spoke on "Can We Teach Democracy Effectively?"

L. V. H.

Educational Policies Commission

The Educational Policies Commission, at its meeting on March 11 and 12, announced that a pamphlet on "International Tensions and Education," approved by the EPC, will be published this summer. This pamphlet is based on the assumption that the present cold war will continue into the adulthood of children now in schools, and because of this situation the schools have a difficult and special responsibility for teaching about national security and problems of international relations. The price and exact publication date are not yet available. When published, copies may be ordered from the Educational Policies Commission, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

German Social Studies Teachers to Visit U.S.

The Office of Military Government for Germany (U.S.) has invited the National Council for the Social Studies to sponsor the visit of nine German social studies teachers to the United States. The NCSS has accepted the invitation to serve as host to these visiting educators and will plan their itinerary while they are in the United States. The NCSS has no financial responsibility to assume in connection with this project. Because only a very limited amount of money has been made available to these German educators for travel in the U.S., their visit will necessarily be limited to areas not greatly distant from New York City, where they will land. These visiting teachers represent all grade levels of instruction, including the teacher-training program. They want to study our total school program and the place of social studies in that program, observe teaching in our schools, examine our teaching materials, and study methods of evaluation.

The National Council for the Social Studies considers it a privilege to participate in this project and to do what it can to aid its fellow teachers from Germany. The exact dates for the visit of these teachers have not been set as yet, and further developments on this enterprise will

be reported in future issues of *Social Education*.

The names of these visiting educators and the places they are from are as follows: Dr. Walter Nowak, Lengenfeld, Kreis Landsberg; Dr. Scherrinsky, Berlin; Mr. Ernst Bosecker, Bremen; Dr. Ruth Sinn, Weilberg; Mr. Joachim Mathesius, Odenwaldschule, Kreis Heppenheim; Mr. Karl Kunert, Karlsruhe; Dr. Hans Schneck-enburger, Ludwigsburg; Mr. Karl Woern, Schwetzingen.

Federal Aid

The National Education Association has produced, as a new tool in the campaign for federal aid, a filmstrip entitled *Toward Better Schools for All Children Thru Federal Aid*. A *Lecture Guide* accompanies the filmstrip. It may be obtained on a loan basis from your state education association or purchased direct from the National Education Association (1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.) for \$1.00. It is a filmstrip of 55 frames on standard 35-mm. film.

Louisiana

Lewis Paul Todd, representing both the National Council for the Social Studies and the NEA Committee on International Relations, met with local social studies groups in Louisiana, February 28-March 4. He discussed two topics—"Social Studies: Model 1959," and "Our Foreign Commitments: Their Implications for Education." Persons in charge of arrangements for these meetings were: G. W. McGinty and Lorimer Storey, Louisiana Polytechnic Institute; Lilla McClure and Mrs. Mary M. Ward, Shreveport; John Kyser and Mary C. Wilson, Northwestern State College; and May Lee Denham, Louisiana State University.

All social studies teachers and social studies organizations are invited to send in material for these columns. Send in notes on the activities of your school or organization and other items of general interest to social studies teachers. Mail your material as early as possible to Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Contributors to this issue: George H. Slappey, Elizabeth Shaver, C. M. Clarke, Claude D. Gentry, Jr., and Luther V. Hendricks.

Pamphlets and Government Publications

Ralph Adams Brown

Women and Money

Social Studies teachers who believe that preparation for the problems of adult living is one of the important purposes of education will be interested in one of the latest Public Affairs Pamphlets: Maxwell S. Stewart's *Women—and Their Money* (Public Affairs Committee, 22 East 38th Street, New York 16; 20 cents).

Mr. Stewart points out that millions of American women find themselves in a position where they are solely responsible for the family's money, but are unprepared to carry out this responsibility successfully. His pamphlet is designed to serve as a guide or a reference handbook for such women and all who want to learn how to put their financial affairs in order. A major thesis of the study is the belief that every woman's investment program must be tailored to fit her special requirements.

The Problem of Atomic Energy

As has been mentioned before in this column, the *Bulletin of the Atomic Scientists* (1126 East 59th St., Chicago 37; \$3.50 per year) is a monthly source of information about all aspects of atomic energy and weapons that no teacher of the social studies should overlook. Recent issues have included these articles: Shils, "The Next Phase of Control Discussions"; Friedwald and others, "The Atomic Deadlock Could Be Broken"; Karl Compton, "Science and Security"; Muller, "The Crushing of Genetics in the USSR"; Lilienthal, "Private Industry and the Public Atom"; Bernal and Polanyi, "Ought Science to be Planned?"; and Oppenheimer, "The Open Mind."

The Foreign Policy Association

Readers of this magazine need no introduction to the continually useful publications of the Foreign Policy Association (22 East 38th Street, New York 16).

Recent issues of the *Reports* (twice a month, 25 cents per copy; \$5.00 per year) have included Andrew Gyorgy's "Political Trends in Eastern Europe"; Olive Holmes' "Peron's 'Greater Argentina' and the United States"; Kennedy and Kattenburg's "Indonesia in Crisis"; Blair Bolles'

"Bipartisanship in American Foreign Policy"; and Fred W. Riggs' "France: The Fourth Republic on Trial."

The *Headline Series* (35 cents each) continues to be one of the better sources of teacher information. It is also within the ability reach of superior junior high students or of those with average ability in the senior high school. Recent numbers have been devoted to "American Interests in the Middle East," by Harvey P. Hall and Carl Hermann Voss, and "Man and Food—the lost equation?" by C. Lester Walker and Blair Bolles.

"American Interests in the Middle East" points out that the United States, officially and unofficially, has been concerned with philanthropic and cultural activities in the region, oil exploitation, the Palestine problem and the strategic position of the area in relation to Russia. "Our primary political goal in the Middle East at present," he declares, "is to keep the area free from domination by the Soviet Union. To this end we have striven for political stability by supporting the governments of Middle Eastern states and have made a try, at least, at finding a peaceful solution for the Palestine problem. . . ."

This same pamphlet also contains an article by Dr. Voss. His belief that in the long run the Arabs may cooperate with Israel in seeking common objectives is encouraging to those who see this area as a potential world trouble spot.

"Man and Food," discusses the rapidly increasing world population in terms of the problem of food supply and of the effect of a lack of food upon the continuation of free institutions. Readers will be sobered by such statements as "It is probable, many population authorities think, that the number of democratic nations in the world may continue to decline—as long as there are more empty bellies in the world than there is food to fill them." This is the type of material that will aid the social studies teacher in clinching the fact of world relatedness for her students.

From a Private Citizen

Privately printed pamphlets can sometimes be used to supplement the materials of the well known organizations. George F. Logan's *Public*

Letters by a Private Citizen (William Frederick Press, 313 West 35th Street, New York 1; \$1.00) discusses capitalism and collectivism and emphasizes their basic differences. He concludes that "only as we come to understand the scheme of our economy will we cast off the fear of Communism and destroy its seeds which incubate in the periods of depression and inflation."

Labor Statistics

The Bureau of Labor Statistics (U.S. Department of Labor, Washington 25) has large quantities of mimeographed and printed material that will be sent without charge to schools, teachers, or libraries. It issues monthly lists of publications, and these lists are cumulated twice yearly. The last monthly list indicated materials in the following areas:

- Collective bargaining
- Construction and housing
- Cooperative movement
- Employment and unemployment
- Foreign labor conditions
- Health
- Industrial hazards
- Industrial relations
- Labor force
- Labor legislation
- Labor-management disputes
- Labor organizations
- Labor turnover
- Negro workers
- Occupational outlook
- Pensions
- Prices and cost of living
- Productivity and technological developments
- Wages and hours
- Welfare
- Women

Town Meeting

Recent issues of *Town Meeting* (Town Hall, Inc., New York 18; 10 cents per copy, \$4.50 per year), the weekly bulletin that gives both the prepared speeches and the question and answer period of "America's Town Meeting of the Air," have included the following broadcast topics:

- What should we do about race segregation?
- What should the administration do about the high cost of living?
- Should there be stricter government control of lobbies?
- Are our ideals being destroyed by the machine age?
- Is a united Protestant church possible now?
- What does the crisis in China mean to us?
- What should we do to win the cold war with Russia?

- Is labor entitled to another wage increase?
- Are corporate profits too high?
- What's behind the crisis in Indonesia?
- Can modern capitalism meet the needs of modern man?
- Are we educating for the needs of modern man?
- How can we make a defense pact with Western Europe?

British Information Services

The British Information Services (30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20) offers a wide variety of free materials. Many of these have more than current value, and the social studies teacher or school librarian who regularly saves these pamphlets will find them of increasing value as time goes on. Recent publications, illustrating the range of their offerings, include the following:

- Britain and the Marshall Plan: Some Appreciations*. Pp. 24.
- The British in India* (1948). This 30-page pamphlet includes a large number of photographs, a map, and a short bibliography. An item worth keeping.
- A Catalog of Selected Publications, September 1948*.
- A Picture of Britain* (1948). 16 pages of pictures with brief captions.
- Not Just Peanuts* (1948). Pp. 28. Illustrated story of Britain's large-scale agricultural experiment in Southeastern Africa.
- Films From Britain, 1949*.
- Labor and Industry in Britain*. This is a quarterly magazine that provides detailed information about the economic situation in England.

The Problems Course

Professor Royce H. Knapp of the University of Nebraska is the author of a 26-page pamphlet that is of great value for all people working with problems courses: *Teaching the Social-Studies Problems Course in Selected Senior High Schools* (Lincoln 1, Nebraska: The Extension Division; 50 cents).

The booklet is based on a two-year study. During this period the author has been supervising such a course at Nebraska's Teachers College High School, and he has also contacted, by questionnaire, "a selected group of teachers who have had marked or outstanding success with the course." There are six parts to this booklet. The first provides a brief, undocumented survey of the evolution of the problems course. The second part provides "The Setting, Problem, and Procedures of the Inquiry." Here is a copy of the 10-point questionnaire and the explanation of how a list of 128 schools in 43 states was obtained. Schools in seven states were visited by the author; the others were contacted by mail. The next part reveals the findings of the questionnaire survey, and the fourth contains the author's conclusions and recommendations. A

list of outstanding teaching resources and a bibliography complete the booklet.

It seems to this writer that the significance of such a study, for other teachers, must lie in the author's conclusions and recommendations; part IV is, therefore, being subjected to further analysis.

The author's conclusions are as follows:

1. There is little or no difference in the successful modern problems course and the mill-run modern problems course with respect to the following: (a) whether it is required or elective; (b) whether it is taken for one or two semesters; (c) whether it is taken by juniors or seniors; (d) whether or not it is combined with history; (e) whether it is offered by a large school or by a small school; (f) whether or not a particular textbook is used.
2. The successful teaching of this course does seem to be dependent upon a carefully selected set of teaching resources . . . in each of the successful courses one finds that the teacher has access to, and utilizes, a variety of books, pamphlets, current periodicals, motion pictures, maps, recordings, and community resources.
3. The potent factor in making the modern problems course a success is undoubtedly connected with the personality and preparation of the teacher. . . . A factor which does not show up on the questionnaire but which was very apparent when schools were visited was that the top-flight social studies teacher participates in community activities. . . . One other point that does not show on the questionnaire but which the writer discovered is that the top-flight problems teacher is a member of either the National Council for the Social Studies or a local council and has access to new ideas, new trends, and new teaching material through the publications of the National Council or other sections of the National Education Association.

The author's recommendations seem equally important and perhaps even more provocative. Some of them are:

1. Men and women should be encouraged to prepare for teaching modern problems only if they have (1) considerable verbal ability; (2) a real liking for people—especially adolescents; (3) a group of interests which lie in the community; (4) professional ambition—ability to write, to lead groups, to organize local and regional groups.
2. Teacher training institutions must provide in their professional educational courses more actual experiences with boys and girls in extra-classroom activities. Opportunities must be found for the future social studies teacher to work with a wide variety of groups.
3. The future teacher of the problems course should be one who is candid with respect to politics and economics. He must be observant, tentative, and patient. He is neither a reformer nor a reactionary. . . . Schools should, whenever possible, have the problems course taught by a married teacher.
4. The writer recommends that the major units of the problems course be developed from the following areas of study:
 - (1) A study of the problems of American youth
 - (2) A study of selected American economic problems
 - (3) A study of selected American political problems

- (4) A study of selected American social problems
- (5) A study of the United Nations and selected world problems.

This plan is defensible, it seems, because it does not "jell" or "set" the problems to be studied in any particular year. It is believed that if teachers follow the general pattern they will give adequate coverage to the vital, recent problems of American life and at the same time give emphasis to the problems of youth and of world organization. . . . It has been the experience of the Teachers College High School that it is better to select one or two problems from each of the five areas and study them intensively than it is to cover a wide range of problems in survey fashion. We cannot teach everything in this course, but we can give youth a frame of reference into which they can place future ideas.

This is an extremely valuable and suggestive booklet. Teachers and school libraries would do well to acquire a copy while it is available.

Reading and the Social Studies

The Iowa Pupils' Reading Circle, a service provided by the Iowa State Education Association (409 Shops Building, Des Moines 9), has recently published two booklets of interest to our readers.

Keystones of Literature; A Basic Library; Kindergarten through grade nine (25 cents), is a 64-page booklet prepared under the direction of Miss Mabel Snedaker. Backed by the laudable philosophy that "It is important that a part of our school budget each year should be spent for books of beauty and distinction . . ." the booklet lists and briefly but carefully annotates, several hundred books. They are arranged in three classifications: primary, intermediate, and junior.

Best Books for Children, 1948-1949 (price not known) is the latest in a series of annual guides. It annotates nearly a hundred "preferred" titles, and lists nearly 1500 others.

Vocational Guidance

The National Urban League (1133 Broadway, New York 10) is one of the better sources of material on Negro problems. Their materials are inexpensive, generous group rates are allowed, and much of their material cannot be duplicated from any other source known to this writer. A recent catalog of their vocational literature contains the following items:

- Negro Heroes No. 2.* Picture stories in color, 32 pages, giving glimpses into the lives and deeds of Negro men and women who have colored the history of America. 10 cents.
- Fair Play.* A nine-page leaflet in color. The story of a boy's neighborhood baseball team and how its members overcome racial intolerance. \$1.20 for 100 copies.
- Your Career in Nursing.* Single copy free.
- Your Job Opportunity Chart.* Pp. 6. 5 cents.

Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

Film of the Month

Discussion in a Democracy, 10 minutes; sale: black and white \$45; color \$90. Coronet Films, Coronet Building, Chicago 1, Illinois.

No discussion can be more than a worthless argument unless the participants follow the rules of preparation, planning, and personality. So contends this film which shows at work four high school seniors charged by their American Problems classmates with recommending a course of action to combat increasing fire losses in their community.

They attack their problem at first with neither organization nor order, and not until their chairman seeks and acts upon the advice and encouragement of a local councilman do their discussions bear fruit. The four students come to recognize the need of planning their attack; an outline sets out the several parts of the problem. Then each must work to gather facts relevant to that part of the problem for which personal interests and aptitudes best qualify the individual.

Alice, recognized as the best interviewer of the four, visits the local Fire Chief and reports back that low salaries rather than antiquated equipment are to blame for poor showings made by the department in recent months. Mechanically-minded Howard, arguing that new equipment ought at least be considered, volunteers to get facts from a neighboring city and from manufacturers on the effectiveness and cost of new engines. Recognizing that either higher paid personnel or the purchase of more up-to-date equipment will mean higher taxes, the group prepares to justify such an increase by asking Betty, interested in accounting, to gather exact figures on community fire losses over a recent period. Subsequent to investigation by letter and telephone, Betty reveals that these losses were equivalent to the salaries of forty firemen, computed at the higher pay rate recommended earlier by Alice.

But further discussion forces the group to conclude that its equipment and personnel proposals are impractical since the City Council is obviously not in a position to raise taxes at this time. So the students decide to propose to the city instead a fire prevention campaign. In a letter to the Council, based on their discussions

as recorded by Betty, they explained their proposed plans for the campaign and indicate those things in it for which they and their classmates might be responsible.

Accompanying this closing action of the film is a commentary which emphasizes, as did the city councilman earlier in the film, the marked contrast in character and results of a truly democratic discussion and a worthless argument.

A number of high school seniors, representing class and informal discussion groups as well as Student Council committees, were invited by the reviewer to see and evaluate *Discussion in a Democracy*. They felt that it ought to be very helpful to school government and other student policy-making groups who are experiencing difficulty in getting things done. There was some doubt that the average high school student would have time to do as thorough a job of investigation as the film implied its four students did, even in the doing of a class-assigned project. There was some question, too, as to whether the discrepancy between the type of city councilman which most people know and the type so flatteringly portrayed in the film might not condition students against accepting the film's main thesis. Generally, however, *Discussion in a Democracy* was recognized as an interesting and stimulating subject which is well selected, organized, and produced in line with needs and experiences of high school students and teachers working in curricular and extra-curricular activities.

Reviewed by Kenneth B. Thurston
Indiana University

Recent 16-mm. Sound Films

British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

Food for Asia. 10 minutes; rental: \$1.25. How the war-stricken areas of Asia are being fed and helped to bring back their own farms to a productive state.

Furnival and Son. 18 minutes; rental: \$2.50. How a small factory in Sheffield is kept going despite competition from larger firms.

School in Cologne. 15 minutes; rental: \$2.50. Rebuilding an educational system in war-ravaged Germany.

Voices of Malaya. 35 minutes; rental: \$5.00. How five million people are working to bring peace and prosperity to Malaya.

Coronet Instructional Films, Coronet Building, Chicago 1.
Developing Leadership. 10 minutes; sale: \$45. Takes a

practical instance of what one boy did when a flood struck his home town.

Life in Lowlands. 10 minutes; sale: \$45. A typical Dutch family living in the polder lands.

The Supreme Court. 10 minutes; sale: \$45. Follows the progress of a typical case through the lower courts to its final hearing in the Supreme Court.

You and Your Work. 10 minutes; sale: \$45. A real life lesson on approaching a job and finding happiness in it.

Your Family. 10 minutes; sale: \$45. A story of a happy family. Stresses need for cooperation and appreciation of all family members.

Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Inc., Wilmette, Illinois.

English Children. 10 minutes; sale: \$45. Typical events in the daily life of an English city family.

Productivity, Key to Plenty. 20 minutes; sale: \$90. How we in America have achieved a capacity to produce coupled with a standard of living unequalled anywhere else in the world.

Everett Keith, Missouri State Teachers Association, Teachers Building, Columbia, Missouri.

Education for Democracy. 20 minutes; rental: apply. How our schools help to build and strengthen democracy.

Film Publishers, 25 Broad Street, New York 4.

The Sydenham Plan. 10 minutes; rental: apply. How one community set about establishing an inter-racial hospital.

Graphic Services Section, Bureau of Mines, 9800 Forbes Street, Pittsburgh 13.

Arizona and Its Natural Resources. 38 minutes; color, free. The film highlights the development of copper and other metal industries, tells how irrigation turned desert wastes into rich agricultural regions, describes the importance of Indian culture, and describes tourist attractions of the state.

Zinc—Its Mining and Smelting. 34 minutes; free. Traces the story of zinc from the mining of the crude ore to the gleaming blue-white slabs at the end of the complex production process.

Young America Films, Inc., 18 East 41st Street, New York 17.

What Is a Map? 10 minutes; sale: \$40. An elementary school introduction to map work. Starts with a girl drawing a chart of her bedroom and leads out into the community.

What Makes a Desert? 10 minutes; sale: \$45. Explains in simple terms how deserts are formed, with special reference to the deserts of the southwestern United States.

Filmstrips

Anti-Defamation League, 212 Fifth Avenue, New York 10.

About People. 63 frames; color; sale: \$5.00. Dedicated to friendly and reasonable cooperation between people regardless of color, race, or creed.

The Jam Handy Organization, 2821 East Grand Boulevard, Detroit 11.

Great American Presidents. Series of four filmstrips in color. Presidents treated are Washington, Jefferson, Jackson, and Lincoln. Lives of the presidents are presented against the background of their times. Price for set of four, \$6.00.

Young America Films Inc., 18 East 41st Street, New York 17.

David and His Family. 30 frames; sale: \$3.75. For the primary grade. Helps pupils to adjust to other members of the family.

How We Get Our Oil. 42 frames; sale: \$3.50. Shows how men locate oil, how the well is dug, and how oil is transported to the refinery.

Radio Notes

Audioscripts 1948 is the title of the 40-page booklet containing the nine prize-winning scripts from the 1948 National Radio Script Contest sponsored jointly by Audio Devices, Scholastic Magazines, and the Association for Education by Radio. These outstanding scripts should be of interest to teachers and students, as well as to others interested in radio script writing. Several of the prize-winning dramatic adaptations had to be omitted from the booklet because they were based on copyrighted stories and 1949 contestants are being urged to avoid making adaptations from copyrighted material. Booklet may be purchased through Audio Devices, Inc., 444 Madison Avenue, New York City, for 60 cents.

One of the most comprehensive guides for evaluating radio programs is *Radio Listening* by Leslie Spence. It includes criteria for judging programs as well as a guide for planned listening. Copies are 35 cents from Mrs. N. M. Madding, 143 N. Hancock Street, Madison, Wisconsin.

Recordings

The special broadcast titled "The Children's Hour—But Not for Children" which was made over Station KFI, Los Angeles, on January 10, in cooperation with the Los Angeles Tenth District Parent Teacher Association, has been recorded and copies are available for \$5 each. Program is documentary in form and is based on a survey of children's radio programs which was made by the Tenth District PTA and reported in the January 1948 *National Parent-Teachers Magazine*. Shortcomings of certain present-day children's radio fare, together with some of the highly beneficial qualities of others, are presented in such a way as to leave it to the individual listener to pass judgment. Script was written by Karl Schlichter, well-known writer. Further details may be obtained by writing to Mrs. Z. W. Logan, Radio Chairman, 882 Victoria Avenue, Los Angeles 5, California.

Free and Inexpensive Material

A "Vacation-and-Play Map of the U.S.A." 2 feet by 3 feet, is free from the National Trailway Bus System, 185 N. Wabash Avenue, Chicago 1.

A number of new maps and globes are listed in Cram's Teaching Aids Catalog No. 82. For a

free copy write to The George F. Cram Company, Inc., 734 E. Washington Street, Indianapolis 7, Indiana.

A scenic map of Indiana will be sent upon request by Indiana Department of Commerce and Public Relations, State House, Indianapolis, Indiana.

Write to the Jamaica Tourist Trade Development Board, 400 Madison Avenue, New York 17, for a picture folder on Jamaica.

A booklet of views on Yellowstone National Park is yours for the asking from Union Pacific Railroad, Room 266, Omaha 2, Nebraska.

A "New Mexico Recreation Map" will be sent free to teachers by New Mexico State Tourist Bureau, Room 1215 State Capitol, Santa Fe, New Mexico.

An Illustrated book entitled "Historical Manitoba" is free from Government Travel and Publicity Bureau, 108 Legislative Building, Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada.

For maps of New England, write to State Planning and Development Commission, 104 Capital Street, Concord, New Hampshire.

A booklet entitled "How to Teach With Pictures" is 10 cents from Informative Classroom Pictures, 40 Ionia Avenue, N. W., Grand Rapids, Michigan.

The Educational Service Division, General Electric Company, Schenectady 5, New York, has prepared a new catalog of "Services to Teachers" listing the free materials which they will supply to schools. Write for a free copy.

The Armstrong Cork Company, Lancaster, Pennsylvania, distributes free charts showing cut-away views of oil refineries, steamship, bakery, and other industrial plants.

Write to the National Council of American Soviet Friendship, 114 East 32nd Street, New York 16, for a list of photographs, slides, and supplementary materials available to schools.

A new catalog of globes has been issued by the A. J. Nystrom Company, 3333 Elston Avenue, Chicago 18. Featured is a new crystal clear cradle mounting which permits free turning of the globe to bring any point to the top. All globes are mounted on steel balls.

"How to Insure a Successful Film Showing" is a free, 16-page booklet available from Affiliated Aetna Life Companies, Hartford 15, Connecticut.

A new list of motion picture films on the nation's resources is now available from Graphic Services Section, Bureau of Mines Experiment Station, 4800 Forbes Street, Pittsburgh 13, Pennsylvania.

A "Projectionist Manual," originally prepared for the purpose of instructing United States Navy projectionists in the handling of projectors costs but 25 cents from the U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C. Ask for bulletin number N 17.24/4-P 94.

A Public Affairs Pamphlet worth reading is No. 148 on "Comics, Radio, Movies and Children." Written by Josette Frank, it is stimulating and thought provoking. Price 20 cents.

A wall display entitled "Famous Festivals" is free from Greyhound Information Center, P.O. Box 815, Chicago 90. This display is 8 feet in length, lithographed in full color, and pictures a number of American festivals and pageants. A teacher's handbook describes the historic origin, significance, and educational value of these occasions.

Helpful Articles

"Audio-Visual Number," *Library Journal*, LXXIV: Entire issue, March 15, 1949. Articles on films, television, recordings.

Barensfeld, Thomas, "The Importance of Films in Adult Education," *Adult Education Journal*, VIII: 52-54, January 1949. What are educational films and what are their values and use with adult groups?

Barnes, Walter, "Teachers Can Make Filmstrips," *Audio-Visual Guide*, xv: 5-7, March 1949. Outlines the steps to be taken in producing home-made filmstrips.

Brown, James W., "Visualized Testing," *Educational Screen*, XXVIII: 116-117, 130, March 1949. How visual tools may be used to test pupils.

Fox, Lillian M., et al., "Folk Songs of the United States for Enriched Social Living," *California Journal of Elementary Education*, XVI: 237-252, May 1949. A selected list of folksongs for use in school.

Gaither, Elizabeth G., "A Miniature Coffee Plantation," *The Instructor*, LVIII: 51, April 1949. A middle grade table top project on Latin America.

Heyman, Carolyn, "Pictures Will Tell," *American Childhood*, XXXIV: 4-7, April 1949. How primary art helps pupils express social ideas about the world.

Keltcher, Wesley, "What Do the Maps Say, Teacher?" *The Instructor*, LVIII: 22, April 1949. Do your pupils know about checking on the kind of a map before using it to answer a particular question? Here are some suggestions for teaching them why.

Knowles, William H., "Television in Education," *The School Executive*, LXVIII: 46-48, March 1949. A summary of the use of television in schools throughout the United States.

MacArthur, E. H., "Understanding the World and Its People," *See and Hear*, IV: 28-29, 42, February 1949. How the series of films, "The Earth and Its Peoples," was planned and produced.

Rizzio, Ernest, et al., "Teaching Democracy—The Audio-Visual Way," *See and Hear*, IV: 14-15, February 1949. Five teachers of varying color, creed, and nationality background explain the steps they have taken to personalize the social studies and their practical relations to one world.

Book Reviews

FERMENT IN EDUCATION, a symposium. By George D. Stoddard, and others. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1948. Pp. 224. \$3.00.

President George Stoddard, at his inauguration as President of the University of Illinois, made an address which he called "Ferment in Education." It is an original and thoughtful essay which lends its title, its style, and the high level of its thinking to the volume published by the University of Illinois as a record of the lectures made during the inauguration proceedings.

President Stoddard presents a matrix theory of education. The matrix centers in an area of specialization where interest and concern are already present for the student and spreads in four dimensions into a pattern of related studies, into an organic pattern of common knowledge, into other interests which eventually relate themselves to social responsibility, and to recreation. This theory is argued cogently, in brilliant fashion, and is utterly convincing. In my own case, I must admit, I was convinced more easily than other people might be.

In his chapter on the "Education We Need," Dr. Hutchins comments favorably on the importance of education and the need for equality in the distribution of opportunity through a national system of competitive scholarships. He shows distress at the lack of intellectual standards in university education and at its dominant vocationalism. To remedy this he suggests education "of the right kind" to produce sound character and a trained intelligence, and a set of rational principles. He declines to be more specific.

Mr. Archibald MacLeish argues strongly and urgently for a sense of responsibility in teaching and for the integrity of the teacher's decision about what should be taught and how it should be taught. His statement concerns, more than any other in the book, the ends of education and, in an eloquent way, demands that teachers commit themselves to determining the kind of goals we want for our lives and to teaching about them.

Dr. Conant's chapter advocates the development of a new attitude to science, which combines a respect for its purity in research and a consciousness of its social and moral usefulness, and makes pointed reference to the need for

seeking out young talent for science in particular and education in general.

The other contributors include General Bradley, who refers to the role of the universities in preventing war; Charles Luckman, who proposes business efficiency to increase educational facilities including three shifts a day, increased pay, and a training program for business and labor leaders; Dr. R. R. Spencer, on cancer research; Dr. E. V. Cowdy, on the implications of our aging population; and others who write on the health sciences and on the responsibilities of the University of Illinois.

The point of view represented by President Stoddard in education, the quality of his thinking and his writing, the kind of leadership he is exerting, both for the University, for the country, and for international affairs, are all celebrated in this volume. His own statement remains one of the best short accounts of an educational theory of significance for the future of the University of Illinois and for American education.

HAROLD TAYLOR

Sarah Lawrence College
Bronxville, New York

THE AMERICAN POLITICAL TRADITION AND THE MEN WHO MADE IT. By Richard Hofstadter. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1948. Pp. xi, 378, xviii. \$4.00.

This volume seeks to promote a better understanding of the American political tradition through a critical, biographical analysis of ten leading statesmen who together bracket our national history. This undertaking is introduced by an essay on the Founding Fathers, and is supported, half way through the volume, by a pungent but hardly original discussion of the spoilsmen of the "Guilded Age." The author's method is that of the critical realist, severely applied almost to the "debunking" extreme, as in the case of Theodore Roosevelt. Mr. Hofstadter is extraordinarily well versed in the history of political theory, which enables him to make a comparative, three dimensional analysis of political thought and action. Thus, the political thought of the framers of the Constitution is examined in light of the contemporary con-

servative and popular schools while references are made to traditional conceptions on politics that reach back to antiquity and to the views of scholars of our own century. He also shrewdly exposes the not always covert antagonism between the aristocratic republican philosophy of the Constitution and the democratic philosophy that even then was challenging the Federalist position.

In general, the men studied were responsible statesmen in their own day, with the single exception of Wendell Phillips, the agitator of the antislavery crusade and labor reform. Seven of the men depicted were presidents. Calhoun is treated, properly, as the leading theoretical apologist and defense tactician of the southern planters—"The Marx of the Master Class." Bryan is dismissed somewhat superficially in "The Democrat as Revivalist." All the presidents studied, from Jefferson to Franklin Delano Roosevelt, emerge diminished in stature from the surgery of Hofstadter's analysis. Striking character portrayal, an insistence upon consistency of thought and action,—from which Jefferson is excepted,—and a vigorous appraisal of each in the light of the problems and political landscape of his era, are the methods employed to produce this end. At the same time, a gift of graphic phrasing, allusions to contemporary situations, and happy anecdotes, make an extremely interesting narrative. Rigorous condensation of the text and candid interpretation of each statesman primarily from a single viewpoint, on the other hand, makes the volume opinionated and less than well rounded in treatment. At times the product is somewhat less than fair. This is notably the case in the chapter on Theodore Roosevelt, who is psychoanalyzed, amateurishly, by remote control along with the middle class of his day, while his pre-White House labors as a reformer are held at a discount, the conservative Republican antipathy for him held in abeyance, and the enormously difficult situation that he inherited within his party when he became president and his strenuous efforts to commit it to a liberal course are ignored. The description of "T. R.'s" position on the "trusts," for the period 1901-1910, must be read with many reservations, while the statement that he left the Standard Oil and American Tobacco Company "untouched" by antitrust prosecutions is a remarkable error. Similarly, a completely unrealistic portrait is presented of the situation that induced Woodrow Wilson to enter politics, a fact that suggests a certain lack of validity in the thesis that his

earlier life had been dominated by frustrated political ambitions. On the other hand, the portrayal of Andrew Jackson as the champion of liberal capitalism does much to place his turbulent epoch in focus and to furnish perspective for the prolonged attempt of his followers to abolish the mercantilist practices and privileges that stemmed from Alexander Hamilton.

Vital and stimulating as it is, the volume suffers from certain serious omissions. Although it is obviously designed to pair with Wilfred Binkley's *American Political Parties: Their Natural History*, the reader is obliged to ask why American nationalism is accorded no place in the book in the person of Washington or Webster or Marshall? Where, must also be asked, are such doughty champions of liberal causes as William Leggett, prophet of the Locofocos,—on whom Mr. Hofstadter has written an interesting article,—and the Robert La Follettes? The American political tradition included, in addition, some notable leadership on the municipal level, where Tom Johnson or Fiorello La Guardia were phenomena of importance. Such omissions weight the volume in the direction of the conservative tradition and restrict the discussion primarily to the arena of national politics. Conservative bias is apparent in undue minimizing of the achievements of such democratic leaders as Jefferson in Virginia, of Woodrow Wilson as President, and of Franklin D. Roosevelt's extraordinary gift for innovation in a crisis era. This bias is responsible, no doubt, for an inaccurate portrayal of Wendell Phillips as a socialist during the years of his identification with the labor reformers.

Despite these lacunae the volume will prove a stimulating addition to the literature of American biography and politics, and useful to students and teachers alike.

CHESTER McARTHUR DESTLER

Connecticut College

THE TRUMAN PROGRAM; ADDRESSES AND MESSAGES BY PRESIDENT HARRY S. TRUMAN. Edited by M. B. Schnapper. Washington D.C.: Public Affairs Press, 1948. Pp. x, 261. \$2.95.

THE PEOPLE'S CHOICE. By Paul F. Lazarsfeld, Bernard Berelson, and Hazel Gaudet. New York: Columbia University Press, 1947. Pp. xxxiii, 178. \$2.75.

During the next four years teachers will be concerned in their social science and other classes with the Truman Fair Deal. Even if only half

of this program is enacted, the consequences to our national life will be much more profound than is generally realized. The best sources of information on this program are the speeches and messages of the President. Until the publication of *The Truman Program*, the only way of obtaining such materials was through the channel of consulting back files of the *New York Times*. This book is indispensable to civics teachers, debaters, and students, as a reference and source.

The text of practically every important speech and message of the President in 1947 and 1948 is presented in topical form under descriptive headings including, "International Affairs," "Taxes," "Housing," and "Education." Veto messages, special messages to Congress, such as the one on Health Insurance, the State of the Union addresses, and campaign speeches provide the sources. The last-mentioned constitutes more than half of the volume and only one or two speeches prior to 1947 are included. The attention given to the campaign talks and the omission of earlier speeches seems justified, however, because the President's recent messages have amplified and expanded the pronouncements made in 1945 and 1946. The editor presents no commentary and lets the President speak for himself on every page; the date and occasion of each message is, however, included. An attractive format and detailed table of contents make the materials easy to read and to locate; these features make the book especially useful for high school students.

The miracle of electioneering recently performed by Harry S. Truman has focused great attention on how the voter makes up his mind in a presidential election. In *The People's Choice*, a "pinpoint" study of this problem, is presented with special reference to the 1940 and 1944 campaigns. A group of social scientists and trained interviewers visited every fourth house in Erie County, Ohio, and selected a special control group for study. The respondents were interviewed each month from May to November to study changes in voting intention. Among the various factors analyzed were the role of socioeconomic status and attitudes, religious affiliation, age, the influence of the radio, newspaper, magazine, and personal contact. Personal influences were found to be very important with the communication media exercising much less influence on the voter than is popularly believed. It was found that in the 1940 election, the overall effect of campaigning was to reinforce the

voter's previously held views; very few persons were converted. An interesting revelation was that the people who change their political opinions are largely those who are indifferent or not greatly concerned about the outcome of the campaign.

This volume is quite technical for the average layman and beyond the reach of high school students and a great many college undergraduates. A careful reading by the classroom teacher who is familiar with general sociology would be profitable as it points out research techniques and evolves generalizations highly useful for understanding campaigns. Teachers having neither the time nor the energy to read the entire book can obtain the substance by reading the Preface, Chapter II, and the last chapter.

HUGH A. BONE

University of Washington

MADE IN INDIA: THE STORY OF INDIA'S PEOPLE AND OF THEIR GIFTS TO THE WORLD. By Cornelia Spencer. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1946. Pp. xii, 203, iv. \$3.00.

THE PAGEANT OF INDIA'S HISTORY. By Gertrude Emerson Sen. New York: Longmans, Green & Company, 1948. Pp. xii, 431. \$4.50.

As the world's leading country, the United States needs the knowledge of other countries beyond her own boundaries, especially of those which have contributed much to human progress. Of these countries India is an outstanding one, both because of her past contribution and of her future promise. The two books under review, although dealing mostly with pageants or high lights rather than with objective and comprehensive surveys, are very useful introductions to Indian civilization.

Beginning with the Indus civilization some 3000 B.C., Cornelia Spencer describes, both under romantic and historic captions, such topics as Dravidian, Aryan, and Hindu cultures; Buddhist and Hindu religions; Emperors Asoke and Akkar; language and literature; dance and music; art and architecture; cave Ajanta and tomb Taj Mahal; village and villagers; and ends with "India Tomorrow." But she scarcely mentions India today. In fact, a big gap between her studies of medieval and contemporary times is the omission of British rule representing the impact of the West, which is directly responsible for the Renaissance of Indian civilization and the regeneration of modern India. With considerable familiarity with Indian history,

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the author tells her story of Indian people with admirable simplicity and lucidity.

Mrs. Sen approaches her study of India from a very rich background, consisting of her early travel in China and Japan, close connection with *Asia* magazine, marriage with a Hindu, study of village life in "Voiceless India," and admiration of Hindu moral and spiritual achievements. Like the previous author, Mrs. Sen begins her story with the Indus civilization, covers somewhat the same ground (though more thoroughly), and stops at the beginning of Moslem rule, which she proposes to discuss in her next volume. She gives a brilliant account of "priceless heritage," "golden age," and Indian culture beyond the seas and the mountains. Although in her enthusiasm, she often goes into more details than the general reader would care to know, Mrs. Sen has presented an idealistic and scholarly treatise on Indian civilization from which the reader can acquire valuable knowledge.

RAJANI KANTA DAS

Washington, D.C.

BUILDING OUR AMERICA. By Clyde B. Moore, Fred B. Painter, Helen M. Carpenter, and Gertrude M. Lewis. New York: Charles M. Scribner's Sons, 1948. Pp. xi, 468. \$2.52.

BUILDING OUR WORLD. By Clyde B. Moore, Fred B. Painter, Helen M. Carpenter, and Gertrude M. Lewis. New York: Charles M. Scribner's Sons, 1948. Pp. vii, 503. \$2.52.

Teachers will welcome these two new books in the Scribner's social studies series for several reasons. The books are interesting. They are written in language which will be easily understandable to ten- and eleven-year-old children, and they are well and abundantly illustrated. The authors have used interesting, outstanding incidents in American and world history and they have included human-interest stories about the lives of really important persons whose achievements can be appreciated by children.

More than half of *Building Our America* is concerned with stories of the early explorers, the settlement of the thirteen original English colonies and the important events in the peopling of America. Emphasis is given to such ideas as: reasons why the early settlers came to our shores, their search for better homes and ways of living, their relations with the Indians. Interesting details are given as to the homes, food, kinds of clothing, recreation, and the celebration of holidays and festivals.

A very commendable feature of these books is that of giving the pupils reasons for studying about early peoples. Relationships between people who lived many years ago and those of us who live today are pointed up time and time again. "Each generation," say the authors, "uses the old ideas and adds new ones." When children also ask, "How do we know so much about these 'old-timers'?" teachers can point to the many source materials included in both books. For example, use is made of: Photographs of drawings found in caves of early man; a diagram of Champlain's house from his book of *Voyages* (1613), and a map from Munster's *Cosmographiae Universalis* of 1544.

A dramatic touch is added to the story of early America by the use of imaginary conversations. Children should be aided to think in terms of other people as they read the imaginary conversations, for example, between a white settler and an Indian. Closely related to this technique is that of giving the children an opportunity to share the experiences of outstanding American and world heroes as boys before they begin to learn about their achievements as men.

In schools where the social studies programs emphasize life today, the second half of *Building Our America* will be of most interest. In the section called, "The Old Ways Change," considerable attention is given to modern advances in home comforts, transportation, communication, good schools, and an acquaintance with such men as Douglas MacArthur, Dwight Eisenhower, and Charles Lindbergh.

Building Our World is closely integrated in method and content with the fifth-grade book. Here, the child learns of life—past and present—in the countries of Europe, Asia, and "Our Neighbors to the North and South." Special emphasis is given to contributions of these peoples and to how they, too, have tried to reach a better way of living.

Both books give pupils an opportunity to learn basic skills needed for success in the social studies—how to use the index, contents, reference books of various sorts. Best of all, children learn how to develop study skills for useful purposes and in very ingenious ways which they will enjoy.

These two additions to the Scribner's social studies series are sufficiently broad in scope to make them of value in any program in the intermediate grades where purposes include an understanding and appreciation of the lives and hopes of people in our own and other countries. Even ten- and eleven-year-old children should sense not only the advantages of living in democratic countries, but also their own part in building a better America and world as they use these volumes.

EDITH T. FAUCETT

East Hill High School
Ithaca, New York

THE RISE OF THE AMERICAN NOVEL. By Alexander Cowie. New York: The American Book Company, 1948. Pp. xii, 877. \$5.00.

Alexander Cowie's *The Rise of the American Novel* will appeal to many teachers of American civilization, first of all because it is at once conscientiously solid on literary, biographical, and social matters—up to 1890 at least—and also because it is fresh in its observations on old friends and lesser acquaintances. Professor Cowie's students at Wesleyan should have enjoyed the lively phrases with which he has capped many an initially sober fact.

Two questions will probably be uppermost in the minds of modern teachers approaching this book. First: What have been the main steps in

the rise of the novel? And second: What is the present position?

On the first question, some 740 pages of text and 100 additional pages of notes provide abundant data and documentation up through Howells and James. They give attention to the culturally important "Domestic Sentimentalists" as well as to the artistically more rigorous writers. While one may wish the author had given more attention to the protective ironic humor as well as the critical realism of pioneer regional and urban novelists like the Kirklands, Melville, and Henry B. Fuller, his appraisals of these novelists are more suggestive than most.

It is on the "rise" since 1900, and on the present position, that the teacher will have most serious question. "New Directions (1890-1940)" disposes of the past fifty years in 12 pages, with half a page of notes. This is disappointing, for what one does find here is often more timely than the amplification in Harry Hartwick's *Foreground of American Fiction* (American Book Company, 1934), to which the notes refer one, and to which the publishers (as I found on inquiry) expect one to turn.

The treatment of Steinbeck offers conspicuous illustration. Cowie closes his book with the statement that Steinbeck provides "brilliant synthesis" of the newer notes in modern naturalism—the socio-economic emphasis, the scientific note, the husky voice of our prose, the absence of finality, the sense of going somewhere yet not knowing quite where—and of having "universality as well." I happen to agree with the estimate. I am particularly grateful that Cowie does not label Steinbeck a scientific determinist with moments of sentimental weakness. But I am left wondering, for lack of specific clue, whether Cowie would agree, in turn, that Steinbeck's "brilliant synthesis" owes much to the fact that he is an "ecological" novelist (made explicitly clear in *The Sea of Cortez*, the year after *The Grapes of Wrath*) intent on "the ecology of the region" where "we . . . take something away from it, but . . . we leave something too"—and that this scientific way out of scientific fatalism is an important part of a new "universality as well" which Steinbeck has contributed in the rise of the American novel.

LENNOX GREY

Teachers College
Columbia University

UNITED STATES HISTORY. By Fremont P. Wirth. New York: American Book Company, 1948. Pp. ix, 734, lii. \$3.48.

Most high school social studies teachers are probably familiar with Dr. Wirth's earlier textbook, *The Development of America. United States History* is not merely a revision of the earlier volume; it is essentially a new book. One significant change is in the organization of material. While the first four units continue the presentation of the events in our nation's history through the Reconstruction Period in conventional chronological fashion, later events are treated in units grouped into three chronological periods within the framework of each of which a topical approach is used. This organization represents a compromise between that of Dr. Wirth's previous book and the strictly chronological treatment found in some high school history texts.

One of the most commendable features of this new text is the emphasis it places upon the period of our history since 1865. There are two hundred and sixty-one pages of material dealing with events through the Reconstruction Period and four hundred and seventy pages with the nation's development since that time. As more emphasis is placed upon our recent history, less attention must inevitably be given to the earlier periods. Dr. Wirth has accomplished the condensation without sacrificing the essentials of the genesis and early development of the nation. He has, for instance, eliminated the details of the exploits of each individual explorer and of the establishment of the separate colonies. This material is often tedious for high school pupils. The decision to retain much of the military and naval data of the nation's wars is questionable. From the standpoint of economy of space and in consideration of other emphases desired, a great portion of this military history might well have been eliminated.

Another outstanding feature of this textbook is the pupil study guides at the end of each chapter. They include questions for mastery of the content, check lists, references, and extensive activity projects. The latter two items are sufficiently numerous that any teacher using this book will find more than ample suggestions for any quantity and type of individual and group work which may meet the needs of his pupils.

The appendixes include, in addition to the Declaration of Independence and the United States Constitution, a chronological outline, a table of significant data concerning the presi-

dents, and a table of important facts regarding each of the states.

Physically, the volume is quite attractive. It is well-illustrated with many pictures, cartoons, charts, and graphs which are new to the history textbook field. The pages are printed in double columns, a feature which has many adherents and many opponents. The maps are more than adequate as to quantity, but there seems to have been too great an effort to make them artistic at the sacrifice of accuracy in boundaries and locations. The tendency toward slipshod place geography among pupils is too prevalent to be encouraged by vagueness in their textbook maps.

On the whole, Dr. Wirth's new contribution is a worthy successor to his previous publication.

ALLEN B. RICHARDSON

John Adams High School
Cleveland, Ohio

Publications Received

- Bogardus, Emory S. *Sociology*. 3rd ed. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1949. Pp. xiii, 598. \$4.50.
- Boyd, Andrew and Francis. *Western Union: A Study of the Trend toward European Unity*. Washington, D.C.: Public Affairs Press, 1949. Pp. v, 183. \$3.00.
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